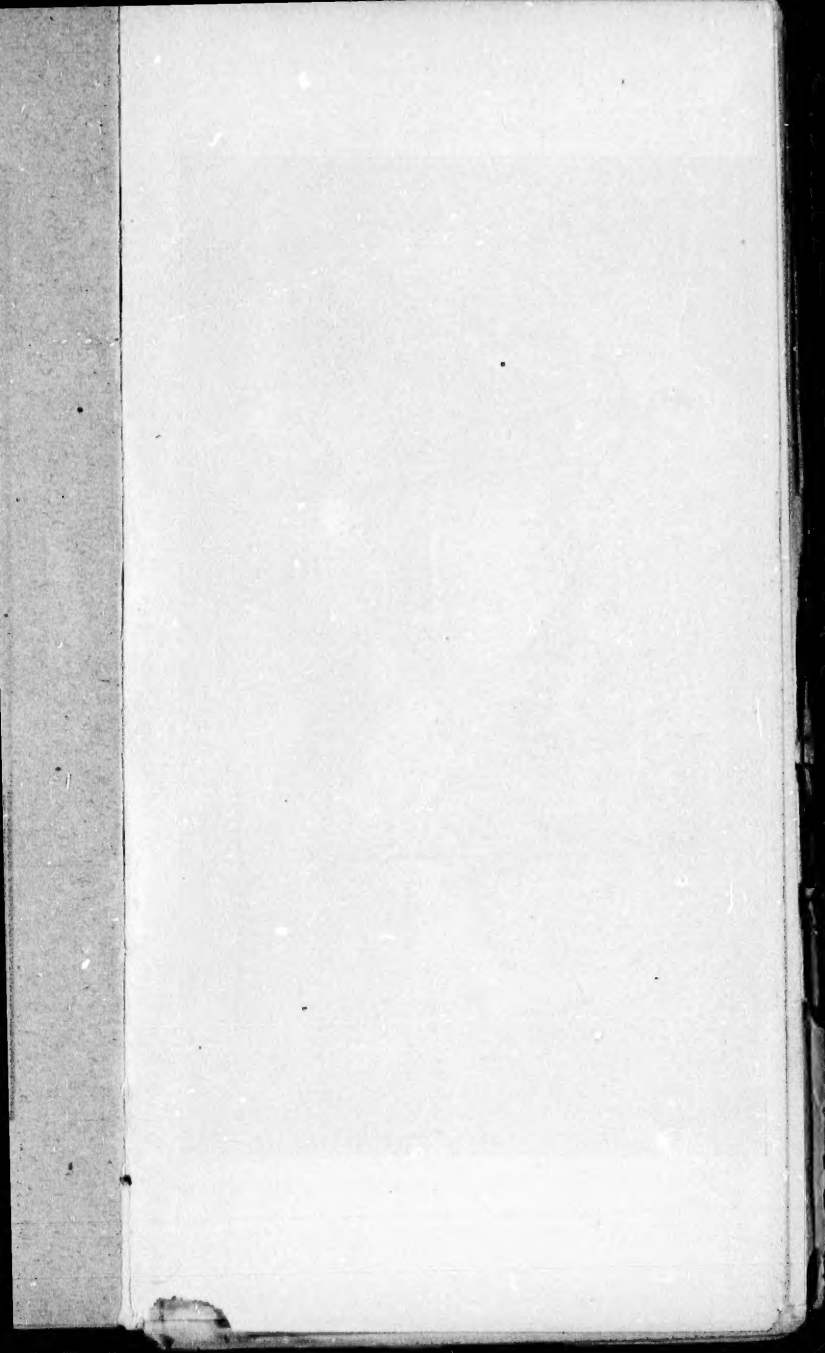


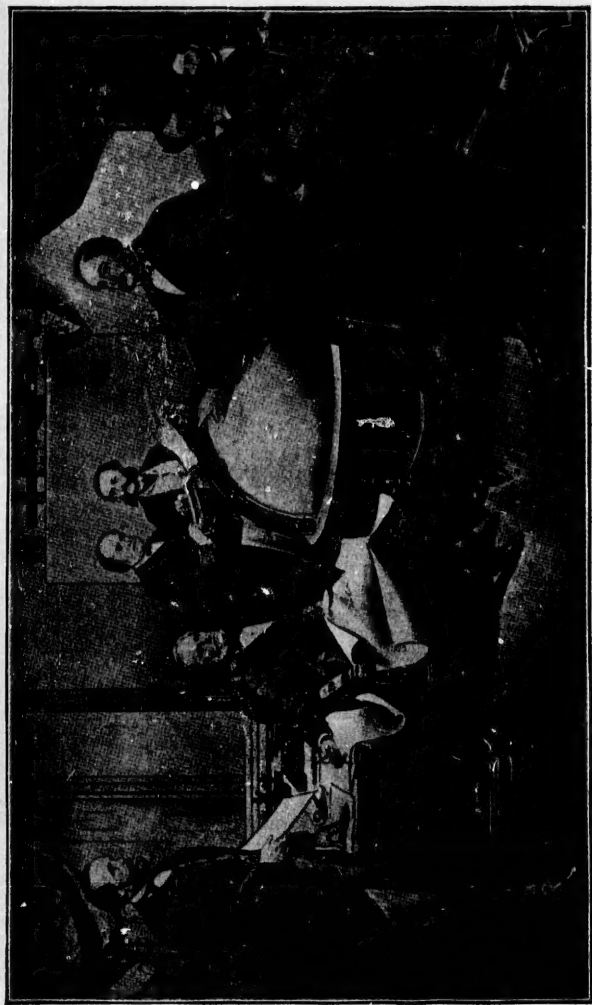


Outline Map of Alaska, from "The



Map of Alaska, from "The Review of Reviews."





Signing the Treaty of Cession of Russian America (Alaska), March 30, 1867. (See page 6.)

AMERICAN DESTINY SERIES.

OUR

Alaskan Wonderland

AND

Klondike Neighbor

A Personal Reminiscence and Thirty
Years After.

By DeB. RANDOLPH KEIM,

War Correspondent with Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, Banks. Foreign Correspondent in Europe, Asia, Africa, Australasia, Three Americas. Washington Correspondent when in the U. S., 1864-98. Agent for the examination of Consulates of the U. S., 1874-3. With confidential instructions concerning Diplomatic Missions of the U. S.



THE HARRISBURG PUBLISHING COMPANY.
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PRESS OF
HARRISBURG PUBLISHING COMPANY,
HARRISBURG, PENNSYLVANIA.

A TRIBUTE TO
WILLIAM H. SEWARD
OF NEW YORK,

Secretary of State of the United States of
America during the administrations of

ABRAHAM LINCOLN
AND
ANDREW JOHNSON.

1861-69.

Not only to recall the Statesmanship and Diplomatic Skill displayed in the Acquisition of a vast Territory of pervading strategic importance in the Manifest Destiny of the Republic of the United States of America, but to commend to his Countrymen the example of his Americanism and his distinguished public services in the advancement of United States institutions and commanding power.

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GOLDEN RULES IN GOLDEN LANDS.

"The asseverations of loyalty which I hear on both sides from British subjects and resident Americans admonishes us that we are liable to be misunderstood * * give me your assent, therefore, to a few preliminaries. First, that the loyalty of the British subject is fully acknowledged and respected on my part. * * * On the other hand I freely confess that it is my political ambition to see that the United States of America, of which I am a native citizen, transcend even the British Nation in civil and religious liberty and usefulness to the human race. * * *

"I have never heard any person on either side of the United States border assert that British Columbia is not a part of the American continent or that its people have or can have any interest material, moral or social different from the common interest of all American Nations."

[*Speech of William H. Seward, August, 1869, at Victoria, British Columbia.*]

"I early accepted and continually held fast to these several political convictions:

"1. That if a nation desires to be independent and prosperous and enjoy peace at home and abroad, it must expand itself commensurately with its resources and advantages.

"2. That human bondage is incompatible with a successful Republic.

"3. That the permanent continuance of European or monarchical government in the American hemisphere would be injurious and dangerous to the United States.

"4. That in the expansion of the Republic the establishment and acceptance of new States on the same footing as the original States is essential for the security of civil and religious liberty."

[*Speech of William H. Seward, 1869, at Salem, Oregon.*]

PREFACE.

The following pages about "Greater Alaska" of to-day are an outgrowth of a series of reminiscent writings recalling some of the scenes and experiences attending the acquisition of the Russian territory in the northwestern corner of the North American hemisphere and in which the author was a participant as a journalist.

The writer naturally, after a personal knowledge of the obstacles encountered in securing the appropriation of the purchase money by Congress, the negotiation of the treaty itself having been a matter of the utmost international friendship between the United States and Russia, has followed each developing stage in the progress of the territory.

The present volume has been written from personal recollections of precedent events and from the latest official and expert authorities.

The author desires to express his sense of obligation to Hon. Frederick W. Seward, of Montrose-on-the-Hudson, N. Y., First Assistant Secretary of State of the United States, 1867, and the chiefs of the National Executive Departments and departmental bureaus in touch with Alaskan administration. Also to Mr. Amzi Smith, Superintendent of the United States Senate Document Room, United States Capitol.

In its proper place the efficiency of departmental management of details in the absence for years of organic statutory control of the affairs of the territory is referred to specifically. This is one of the most striking and encouraging features of our form of national administration, where derelictions of the legislative may be compensated by the executive branch of the Government.

The hope that these pages might contribute in a popular, authoritative and comprehensive form to a better acquaint-

OUR ALASKAN

ance with "Our Alaskan Wonderland and Klondike Neighbor" was the incentive to this work.

Our Alaska is not only a region of physical wonders, but of unlimited developed and almost incomprehensible unexploited physical wealth which the sovereign people of the United States at large are just beginning to realize they possess.

That it will be the seat of a large industrial class of citizens is undoubted. That millions upon millions of vested capital will be placed there goes without saying. That it will be one of the foremost productive sections of the United States the near future will unfold.

The author, in looking back to his frequent interviews with Mr. Seward during the progress of this great acquisition and the earnestness of that great statesman in the promotion of the glory of his country is more impressed than ever that the Divine Master, who holds in his hand the destiny of nations, and of our own particularly against the purility, narrowness and mental blindness of many of its own citizens called statesmen brought to the front William H. Seward in 1867, Washington in 1775, Jackson in 1812, Lincoln in 1861, Grant in 1863, and other truly illustrious citizens in times of national opportunity or emergency.

The Author.

Washington, D. C., 1898.

The signing of the Treaty of Cession of Russian-America to the United States, March 30th, 1867, is a copy of the painting by Leutze. Beginning at the left-hand of the illustration the figures are Vladimir Bojisco, secretary of the Russian Legation; William H. Seward, United States Secretary of State; William Hunter, Second Assistant Secretary of State; R. S. Chew, Chief Clerk Department of State; Edward Stoeckl, Russian Plenipotentiary; Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, United States Senator; Frederick W. Seward, First Assistant Secretary of State. The background represents the Secretary's office in the old quarters of the department.

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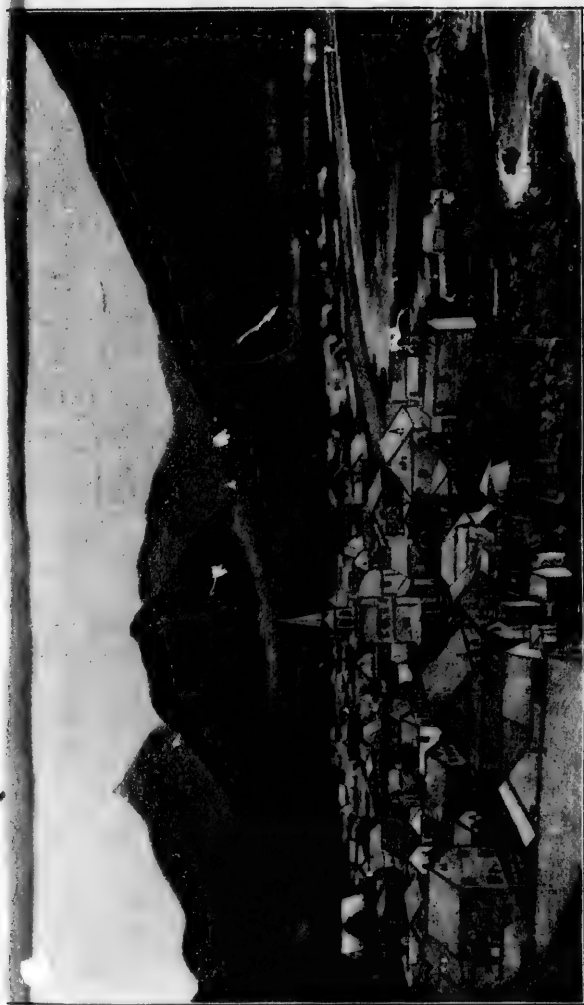
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Sitka, the Capital of Alaska.

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Our Alaskan Wonderland

**A Series of Newspaper Letters Suggested
by the Recollection of Frequent Inter-
views, as a Washington Correspon-
dent, Pending the Negotiations
with Russia, with the Eminent
Statesman, who Added to
the Diadem of the Ameri-
can Union its Subarctic
and Arctic Gems.**

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AN ALASKAN ROMANCE,

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER I.

**The Story of the Courtship of
the Russian Bear and
Miss Columbia.**

**An Alliance to Bar England Out of
the Commerce of the East.**

THE PACIFIC AMERICAN LAKE

**The War Cry of '54-40 or Fight' Found An
Echo at St. Petersburg.**

**Some Personal Reminiscences of a Pro-
fessional Experience Connected
With an Event Which Now
Thrills the World.**

**In an upper suite of apart-
ments in a rambling structure
near the northern limits of the National
Capital, erected for an asylum, founded
under the patronage of Dolly P. Madison,
wife of the fourth President of the United**

OUR ALASKAN

States, for orphans of soldiers and sailors of the United States in the War of 1812, had been set, through the ebbing and flowing tide of time twixt the 29th and 30th days of March, in the year 1867, two statesmen of world-wide fame.

The simply-furnished and somewhat weirdly-lighted apartments had the appearance of the culminating stages of some great event in the affairs of man and nations. There were present the plenipotentiary, secretaries and attaches of a mighty empire, and the Secretary of State and his assistants of a great republic.

There were also present the scribes and ready interpreters of two powerful nations. In wild confusion strewn over the tables was a mass of stationery, covered with the mystic characters of the Slavic or the simpler chirography of the Anglo-Saxon and Latin family of languages.

As time sped onward toward dawn this babel of roughly inscribed annotated sheets in Slavic and Roman characters and three tongues under the deft manipulation of the secretaries, assumed the elegance and accuracy of engrossed parchments with great seals and other ceremonial appendages of international State documents attached, conveying in parallel columns the Anglo-Saxon vernacular and the French diplomatic version of the stipulations, "word for word," agreed upon by the high contracting parties.

In the earlier part of the evening of the 29th or of date the 17th in the tardier notation of time in the imperial calendar, there arrived hurriedly at the portals of an historic mansion on Lafayette Place a messenger wearing the livery of a royal master, who conveyed to the porter within a sealed packet embossed with the armorial bearings of the vast empire of the North.

Its contents, simple in terms and brief in detail, at once electrified not only the aged and decrepit statesman to whom the packet had been handed, but brought forth a prompt response of acknowledgment and invitation to final conference.

An hour later the principals were in

WONDERLAND

earnest adjustment of the finishing terms of the great act. Their assistants were in scrupulous supervision examining and comparing the terms and phrasings as they would stand recorded for war or peace so far as human agencies could make them upon the duplicated sheets of parchment for signature, Imperial confirmation, Senatorial ratification, mutual exchange, Presidential proclamation and as a bond of perpetual friendship and moral union between the most powerful republic and most formidable empire of ancient or modern times.

These scenes of activity and zealous negotiation at 4 o'clock on the morning of the 30th day of March, American style, in the year 1867, reached a triumphant culmination in "the treaty concerning the cession of the Russian possessions in North America by His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, to the United States of America," concluded by the signatory powers and their agents, William H. Seward, Secretary of State of the United States, and Edouard de Stoeckl, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the United States and Privy Counsellor to His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, in consideration of the payment of \$7,000,000 for the ceded territory and \$200,000 to cover contingencies and encumbrances by the associated companies in gold.

The mysterious packet which had so suddenly turned expectancy into realization contained the following (translation) words: * * * "by a telegram dated 16-28 of this month, from St. Petersburg, Prince Gortchakoff informs me that His Majesty, the Emperor of all Russias, gives his consent to the cession of the Russian possessions on the American continent to the United States for the stipulated sum of 7,200,000 dollars in gold, and that His Majesty, the Emperor, invests me with full powers to negotiate and sign the treaty. * * * Stoeckl.

The inceptive and progressive stages of this earliest romance of our modern sub-arctic El Dorado received from the living lips of the somewhat

OUR ALASKAN

stern and summary statesman and the placid, considerate and courtly mannered diplomat, make an interesting inside narrative of an international courtship which began in the stages of Russian barbaric mergeance into Western civilization and the conquered American transition from colonial subjection into national autonomy between the two foremost powers of the earth to-day.

It was not alone self but honest glorification of republican diplomatic methods which caused the chief officer of the American Cabinet, seated in his "official den" to earnestly exclaim to the writer "this diplomatic event was accomplished without precedent protocols or despatches and the transmission of but two brief notes between the two negotiators."

The antecedent career of William H. Seward in private and public affairs pointed that man out as early as the mid-century period of the political contentions over questions of national politics as a statesman of comprehensive views upon American destiny.

The growth of friendship between the United States and Russia began with the establishment of the Independence of the American colonies and had been manifested more than once in times of critical relation with other European powers.

In the midst of the commercial and clandestine hostility and intrigue of most of the European States in the earlier stages of the Rebellion in the Southern States against the perpetuation of the American confederation Russia held an attitude in the very outset of substantial sympathy and solicitude for the stability of the Union.

The most notable instance of this was the verbal understanding between the two governments that the United States would be at liberty, if it should be found necessary, to carry prizes taken on the high seas from any nation at war with it or under the insurgent flag, into Russian ports for adjudication or sale. It was also a fact often reverted to by New York's foremost statesmen to the writer that

during the entire period of the Rebellion of the South when other nations—England and her colonies, Germany, France and Spain—were engaged in sinister dallying and treating, no confederate agent was ever received, encouraged or entertained at St. Petersburg.

Even difficulties growing out of complaints usually traced to the active schemes of European and Confederate intriguers were adjusted by verbal explanation without even committal to writing.

In the winter of 1863, it is well remembered, by those of ample years to justify such a contemporaneous recollection, the visit of the Russian fleet to the harbor of New York and the roads off Hampton, the first line of maritime defense of the American Capital, was intended by the Emperor, Alexander II, and was so accepted by the President, Abraham Lincoln, and the people of the United States as a demonstration of good will and a notice to England, France, Germany and Spain or all the nations of the earth that the ice-bound Baltic could not stay the powers of the empire in defense of the American Union.

The long and steadfast courtship between the Russian Bear and Columbia, the maiden of nations, was brought still closer in intimacy between the authorities of the two countries, by an understanding to act in concert for the establishment of a line of telegraph between St. Petersburg and Washington through an interocean cable across the narrow straits of Bering then within the dominion of the Emperor, to connect with a land service across Siberia toward the East and the United States, the British and Russian possessions toward the West.

The scheme negotiated at St. Petersburg and Washington was sanctioned by the necessary statutory enactments of Congress.

The courtship continued in December of 1864, when the President invited the Emperor Alexander II to send his principal adviser, the Grand Duke Constan-

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tine to make a visit to the United States, to be received by the President and people as their guest.

The condition of the home affairs of the Empire alone prevented the accomplishment at that time of this further act of international friendship.

In furtherance of this proffered token of international intimacy the American Plenipotentiary, General Cassius M. Clay, of Kentucky, was directed from Washington to bring the subject to the personal attention of the Grand Duke. The American Plenipotentiary was amply fortified for such a delicate duty. He had been President Lincoln's first appointee and had become a favorite at the brilliant court of the Czar Alexander II. After little over a year's residence he had been summarily displaced, with evident signs of imperial disapprobation, in order to make room for Simon Cameron, of Pennsylvania. This veteran official having become objectionable to the President, Abraham Lincoln, and his Cabinet, had been unceremoniously dispatched to St. Petersburg as plenipotentiary. A residence of eight months, made irksome by the much dampened fervor which had hitherto existed between the two countries, brought this incident to a close. General Clay, whose admirable tact had brought him to the attention of the Emperor and his surroundings was once more established in his old post and renewed the cordial relations which had been so ruthlessly interrupted.

It was evident from Mr. Seward's very oblique utterances to the writer that he was then contemplating personal overtures for the acquiescence of the Emperor in the transfer to the United States of his vast possessions on the western shores of the Pacific for a consideration to be agreed upon as ample and satisfactory.

In this he suggested in a deeply diplomatic way a misconception of the actual conditions, which made him wish it were possible for the Grand Duke "to come out and spend a few months in America." The Secretary persisted in withholding a

specification of his reasons, "as they would occur to the envoy as well as to his Imperial Highness." Which they seemed not to have done when most essential.

The rapid sequence of events which finally tended to the immediate negotiations and consummation of the traditional friendship of the ruling family of Russia and of the personal good will of Alexander II, from the throne of the Romanoffs began not in the older and more mature States of the American Union, but in the most remote and inaccessible parts of the public domain.

In February, 1866, a memorial of the Legislature of the Territory of Washington to the President of the United States, Andrew Johnson, called the attention of the Government to the abundance of codfish, halibut and salmon along the shores of the Russian possessions and asking on the part of the Government the negotiation of arrangements which would protect them in the exploration of the seas from "Cortez Bank to Bering Straits."

This memorial was made the occasion of a correspondence with M. de Stoeckl, the Russian envoy at Washington, by the Secretary of State, Mr. Seward, having in view arrangements to enable the daring fishermen of the Pacific coast to penetrate those unknown seas in pursuit of their perilous vocation.

At the time these preliminary negotiations were under way in April, 1866, an attempt upon the life of Alexander II was made by one Karakozow. This atrocious act aroused throughout the United States the most supreme indignation. An expression of national joy upon his escape was conveyed to the Emperor by an officer of rank, Assistant Secretary of the Navy Fox, as special bearer and as a demonstration of friendship.

At this juncture, in October, the Russian Envoy, Edouard de Stoeckl, who had served as Russian Charge d'Affaires ad int., at Washington, as early as 1849, and again in 1854, and was promoted to envoy and plenipotentiary near the Govern-

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ment of the Republic in 1857, left for St. Petersburg as part of an understanding between himself and Secretary Seward, to promote the good relations existing between the two countries.

So effectually had the preliminaries been covered that the following March, less than five months, de Stoeckl was again at his post awaiting his final instructions. These reaching him on the 29th of the same month, as we have seen, before the dawn of the day following the Russian possessions on the North American continent, so far as the concluded negotiations were concerned, had become an integral part of the American Union.

We have now seen the sentimental side of this courtship of two mighty nations.

There was an earlier and far-reaching motive involved, which had its inception in the unerring and undeviating diplomatic policy of the Empire inaugurated by the Dukes of Kief eleven centuries before, continued by the Dukes of Wladimir, Moscow and Muscovy, consolidated by the genius of Michael Fedorovitz, of the house of Romanoff, and amplified in its ramifications in the international relations of the powers of the globe to-day by his descendants.

In 1863, while returning to the diplomatic post from which he had been so unceremoniously deposed, the re-appointed American Plenipotentiary, General Clay, had as a fellow passenger on the Atlantic steamer a well-known personage in public affairs during the administration of James K. Polk. The individual referred to had been that functionary's Secretary of the Treasury in the last half of the fourth decade of the present century. He had signalized his presence in the official family of the Presidential Tennessean by drawing up and securing the passage of one of the most grotesque and impracticable systems for raising revenue the country had ever seen, and par consequence involved Congress and the people in the utmost political turmoil. This dapper and hustling little man of

brains and expedients with whom the writer had a most enjoyable acquaintance, is known to American politics as Robert J. "Bobbie" Walker, of Mississippi. It was during the activity of this administrative regime in 1846, that the Whig surrender of 1842, which culminated in the Webster-Ashburton treaty, concluded in that year relative to the northwestern territory, began to assume a warlike aspect.

It had been claimed by the United States that the dividing line by previous treaty arrangement ran along the parallel of latitude 54 degrees and 40 minutes from the sea to the Rocky Mountains.

The patriotism of the people was aroused with old-time fervor over the prospect of a war with England. A great and dominant political party, the Democrats, in national convention of 1844 declared as a canon of their political faith "54-40 or fight."

Upon that popular cry the administration of James K. Polk whirled into power. The popular doctrine was sustained by the President in his inaugural address to his fellow countrymen. The people were ready for action.

The Congress assembled and prepared for war, with Lewis Cass as the leader, backed by the Democratic press and people.

The Congress gave authority and ordered notice served upon Great Britain abrogating the joint occupation of the disputed region by citizens of the two Powers.

The British receded by proposing the 49th parallel north latitude continuing to the ocean which had previously been suggested in 1844 by John C. Calhoun, the last of the series of Secretaries of State under President Tyler. The President declined to yield. The wily Lord Ashburton, who had been on a special mission and understood the sensibilities of American politics, very adroitly disarmed the Democratic "54-40 or fight" at one swoop by obsequiously acknowledging the conquest of Canada by the United States in event of war, and the enormous preponderance

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such an acquisition would give to the free States of the North over the slave-holding oligarchy of the South in the enactment of laws in Congress. Canada was known to be more bitter in its hostility to the "institution" than were the most radical of the States.

This settled any further controversy. The mutterings of war with Mexico soon diverted the martial spirit of the people to other fields of gore and glory.

In the course of conversation upon the growing trade of the Pacific, ex-Secretary Walker somewhat startled the American Embassy by informing him that the Emperor Nicholas I, to his personal knowledge, was willing to cede his Russian-American possessions to the United States if the United States would close up its Pacific Coast possessions to 54 degrees 40 minutes.

A person of the authority of Mr. Walker, having been a member of the official family of the President, to whom the overtures were made, gave the statement full credence in the mind of the American diplomat, and added an impetus to the efforts which followed.

The ex-Secretary conceded the reciprocal feeling in the United States and the possibility of an alliance with Russia, which would have driven out the commerce of England and made the North Pacific an American Lake.

He admitted that the slave-holding interest in its fear of such a vast acquisition of free soil, surrendered the welfare of the nation and not only thwarted Russia in her splendid Eastern policy, but let England into the trade of a great ocean.

The spirit of war having closed its wings for the time being, the vast possessions on the western shores of the North Pacific once more became a subject of diplomatic consideration between the Empire and the Republic.

During the administration of James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, the Russian Government went so far as to take the initiative by sounding Lewis Cass, then Secretary of State at Washington, through

WONDERLAND

William M. Gwinn, a Senator from California, and Mr. John Appleton, of Maine, then Assistant Secretary of State, and upon the advent of the Lincoln regime, American Envoy at St. Petersburg.

After several interviews with M. de Stoeckl at Washington, in December, 1859, a price was suggested at \$5,000,000.

In 1860 Prince Gortchakoff informed Jeremiah S. Black, of Pennsylvania, then Secretary of State, in a dispatch, that the offer was not what might have been expected. The Presidential elections of that year, the secession of the slave States and the War of the Rebellion, put an estoppel upon further negotiations at that time.

The importance of an European electric telegraph, independent of English control, once more revived the subject of American ownership of the Russian possessions on the Western Hemisphere.

It transpired as a fortunate coincidence when the final agitation of possession began in February, 1866, that the charter of the Russian company would expire the following June.

As a complication, which threatened to involve the negotiations in a controversy with Great Britain, the Russian company had practically under let to the English Hudson Bay Company all its franchises on the main land from 54 degrees 40 minutes to Mount St. Elias.

The Russian Government was not favorable to renewing the charter to the British Hudson Bay Company, but was willing to do so to an American company, such company to pay to the Russian Government 5 per cent. of its gross proceeds.

The American Envoy at St. Petersburg advised the American Secretary of State, on February 1st, 1867, of the efforts of the Russian company to secure a renewal for 25 or 30 years for the purpose of subletting to the Hudson Bay Company, already enjoying the monopoly of the British possessions in the vast region around Hudson Bay.

In order to meet this critical pass of affairs Mr. Seward expedited his negotiations so as to head off so untoward a culmi-

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nation of his thus far successful efforts. In anticipation, however, of this contingency the American Secretary, after several informal conferences, convinced the Russian Envoy of the importance of a personal visit, which was made, as we have seen, to St. Petersburg.

By a prompt and timely interview of Cornelius Cole, then a Senator from California, one of the promoters of the American company, with the Russian Envoy de Stoeckl, and a subsequent conference with the American Secretary of State, the counter movement began. The California Senator was a man of tall and commanding figure, with a fine address, courtly methods and a sharp eye to business and diplomacy. He speedily won the interest and favor of the Russian Envoy. The American Secretary went so far as to instruct the American Envoy at St. Petersburg to lay the subject of the Russian company and the adverse connivance with the Hudson Bay managers at London before the Russian Government.

Through the success of a shrewdly manipulated intrigue the Russian authorities privately turned over the privileges sub-let by the Russian-American company to the English Hudson Bay Company to American hands. The ostensible reason for this clever move was to have the natives of that wild region friendly to the American interests in the exploration and construction of the proposed line of telegraph, and to have the line in American hands in event of war between Russia or the United States and Great Britain.

The English intriguers, who worked wonders in 1844, but utterly failed in 1867, made vigorous attempts to baulk or frustrate the consummation of the treaty.

They also set adrift a court intrigue at St. Petersburg alleging the opposition of every Russian sovereign from Ruric, Duke of Kief, down to Alexander II, Emperor of all the Russias, to the cession of territory to a foreign State. The British influence with some satire also

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brought up the nominal sum received for the vast and valuable region. They were met with the Russian reply: "We know we have sold too cheaply, but it is all in the family."

The American Envoy, Mr. Clay, reflected the motives of the Emperor and his counsellors when he said: "The Russians wanted us as near their eastern possessions as possible. They regard us as perpetual friends. In the race of empire on the Pacific, in the peaceful pursuit of American and Russian interests they expect to ultimately expel from the Pacific all nations to be feared."

The culmination of this international courtship, covering a period of nearly a century, in the cession of an imperial domain in supreme right and area, to the sovereignty of the American Republic began an era of American destiny foreshadowed years ago in the gorgeous palace of the Czars. In the recent discovery of auriferous and exploitation of vegetable and marine wealth there is seen ahead a marvelous realization.

The masterly manner in which the negotiations were conceived, continued and completed, when we reflect upon them after the whole American people and the whole world have had an opportunity to form a cold and calculating judgment, is best characterized when we hold before the scenes we have depicted of thirty years ago, the searching mirror of the present.

There we must see in the somewhat eagle-like physiognomy en passant of a thoroughbred American eagle too, the image of one of the best types of an American statesman and diplomat.

The marvelous secrecy maintained of the details of the negotiations pending their accomplishment between the principals, William H. Seward and Edouard de Stoeckl, stands out in refreshing contrast to methods we have sometimes had revealed in dealing with international questions where secrecy is gold and glory, and loquacity dross and disappointment. We also see in our romance the connected links of international friendship and co-

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operation manifested by the Russian rulers and Government toward the American people and their institutions from the very beginning of their assertion of the principle "taxation without representation it is tyranny," and the consummation of their efforts to throw off allegiance to a bigoted King and ministry. We have seen this traditional policy of the friendship of Russia for the American Republic renewed and strengthened at every crisis in American external affairs.

With such repeated obligations to the friendship of Russia, it must be conceded that no considerations of a meddlesome sentimentalism can or should shake any loyal American in thoughts of gratitude and reciprocation. We find Francis Dana in 1780, three years before the final submission of King George III and his ministerial satellites, to the stern exigencies of defeat at the gorgeous court of Catherine II. This most remarkable Empress, of a masterful mind in civil affairs, diplomacy and war, welcomed with almost affectionate consideration the plenipotentiary of a people then still struggling for liberty and independence.

The kind offices of this mighty Empress coerced the stupid King to negotiate a peace which had been won by arms from Lexington to Yorktown.

And so has it been, friendship, good will, co-operation, defiance of the "concert" of nations, through the subsequent reigns of her son Paul; of his son, Alexander I; of his brother, Nicholas I; of his son, Alexander II; of his son, Alexander III, and of his brilliant son, the young Czar Nicholas II, who now reigns over all the Russias,

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DEB. RANDOLPH KEIM.

WONDERLAND

THIRTY YEARS AFTER

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER II.

**An Alaskan Prophecy Becomes a
Realization of Statecraft.**

**A Three-Cornered Intrigue in the
Capitals of Three Nations
Frustrated.**

**Colonization Awaits the Magic Wand of
Gold—Course of Empire in the Ameri-
can Occident—The Balance Sheet
of Alaskan Trade and
Commerce.**

**Retiring from the Cares of Office Mr.
Seward Visits and Talks to His Fel-
low Citizens of Alaska--What He
Told the Queen's Subjects
at Victoria.**

It borders upon the grotesque to recall to mind Thirty Years After, the punctured sensibilities and prophetic utterances of the statesman, who secured to the domain of the Republic, through the peaceful methods of diplomacy, a vast region teeming with unexploited wealth and added another stride to the march of American destiny.

It does not seem credible as the magnitude of the possibilities of that same re-

glion become revealed year by year, that the statesman who achieved such a triumph of diplomacy and by a stroke of the pen cemented a long, lasting and oft demonstrated friendship with the foremost power on the globe, found himself forced to call for friendly advocacy in justification then of what is now conceded to have been one of the master strokes of American statecraft.

"Write it up. Write it up," the Secretary vehemently exclaimed to the writer when the opponents of the appropriation necessary to the closing of the terms of the treaty seemed to be gaining momentum. "Now is the time for the champions of American destiny to step forward. Show them the power of the press."

The "them's" were the men in public and potential private station who were trying to release "the rabbit" now that it had "been caught," and were opposed to "cooking it" by the appropriation of the \$7,200,000 stipulated in the treaty.

These were the figures of speech which the Secretary applied to the unexpected raid which had risen up in an unlooked for quarter to frustrate the consummation of the concluded session.

Mr. Seward attributed all the difficulties and obstructions which had been thrown in his way in Congress to the American "tools" of intrigues fomented in London.

"Those English," said he, upon one occasion, "can never be friends of America, and our people will make a mistake if they ever trust them. We have too many instances recorded in our international experiences with other nations not to feel assured of that. American destiny is so swift in peaceful expansion that lasting friendship is impossible. For my part I would rather bend my faith toward our great and good friend, the Emperor of all the Russias, than in the Queen's councillors and the British people."

The Secretary putting his foot down and his hand most emphatically upon the

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richly inlaid table near him simultaneously observed: "Now, mark you that! You are young and will find it so in your day as the interests of your country become more widely expanded and world wide, and jealousy becomes stronger on the other side."

The voluminous optimistic literature of the day brought to the support of the cession a degree of information which, after a short, sharp and decisive struggle, brushed away the pessimistic "Tories," as the Secretary was wont to designate the American champions of the Anglo-American lobby which besieged Congress.

The opposition, as Mr. Seward would console himself, was no worse and from the same cause, the commercial jealousy of England, than was experienced during the Louisiana purchase in 1803.

At the time of the Russian cession, 1867, there was a party of "ins-and-outs" at St. Petersburg, as well as in London and Washington. In these three great capitals the Secretary was forced to combat a powerful element determined by every means, fair or foul, to discredit the American administration. The turmoils incident to President Johnson's political projects were then at their climax and served to give the American allies of the opposition a pretext for their activity.

In St. Petersburg there was a strong influence among the reactionary nobility which opposed any contraction of the bounds of the Empire, and was antagonistic as far as it dared to be, to the Emperor for his liberal treatment of the serfs and for other marks of progressive spirit.

In London the professional growlers saw in the future a mighty rival in the trade of the Pacific.

With the same inflexible will the Secretary, by the exercise of a little political finesse, carried the day in the halls of Congress as he had done in the cabinet of diplomacy.

The remaining formalities of acquisition were promptly complied with by the proclamation of the treaty by Andrew

Johnson, President of the United States, on the 20th of June, 1867.

The policy of the Russian-American Company, under its wholesale chartered franchises from St. Petersburg, was the exclusion of the vast region under its protection from every species of enterprise except the fisheries and pursuit of the fur-bearing animals in the sea and on the land.

The authorities at St. Petersburg were on this account aside from the international questions involved even more ready to transfer the territory to the United States, whose people had already shown themselves to be the most aggressive competitors for the commercial and manufacturing supremacy of the world.

The Russian company repelled every attempt to fell the forests and thus contract the haunts of the fur-bearing animals native to the region.

The policy of the Russian government was more concerned in promoting the colonization of a population upon the western shores of the Pacific, which might in the future contribute to the restriction of British aggression in that section of the globe.

The cession of the territory to the United States was expected to fulfil on American lines these expectations.

As early as April 21st, 1867, just three weeks after the treaty of cession to the United States was concluded, a meeting of citizens was held in Philadelphia, out of which sprung an association for the civilization of Russian America and asking the co-operation of the government. Similar movements were inaugurated in New York and Boston.

The lease of the seal fisheries and the investment of capital in the catch of cod-fish, whaling, canning and salting of salmon introduced a spirit of enterprise in that remote possession which only required the magic wand of gold to give it impetus which would make Alaska one of the finest possessions of the Union.

To have said fifty years ago that the

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eastern littoral of the Pacific Ocean from San Diego to Cape Flattery would contribute three splendid commonwealths to the American Union would have been treated as an idle romance.

The State of California, second only to Texas in area, admitted to the Union in 1850, seven years ago (1890), with a population of 1,204,000 ranked twenty-third in the list of States of the Federal compact. Oregon, admitted in 1859, larger than New York and Pennsylvania combined in area, with a population of 313,000, ranked thirty-eighth. In the same year, Washington, almost as large as Ohio and Indiana, had a population of 349,000.

The tide of emigration, which set in with such vigorous dimensions upon the discovery of gold in California in 1848, will find history repeating itself in 1898. The pioneers of 1897 now flocking to Alaska and adjacent territory are opening the way to a realization.

The march of empire on the Western Hemisphere has been led by the pursuit of the precious metal.

The earliest ideas of the navigators, potentates and peoples of Europe pointed to the wealth of Cathay and Cipango. The search for a shorter passage to those realms of fabulous wealth became the stimulating agent in the promotion of geographical science. The Spaniards who followed in the wake of Columbus, the cavaliers who settled at Jamestown, the pioneers who opened the pathways of the plains forced the defiles of the Rockies and the Nevadas and debouched upon the blue ocean of the American occident did in their epoch of racial distribution what the talismanic cry of gold will again do for Alaska.

The organization of the ceded region in 1884, but seventeen years after the treaty, under a territorial form of government, was in itself a significant assurance of a development more progressive and enduring than had been achieved during the century and quarter which elapsed from the time that Vitus Bering anchored under the shadow of the tow-

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ering peaks of St. Elias down to the diplomatic achievement of William H. Seward in the capital of a nation then unborn.

The march of American empire which from the beginning of the republic had taken its way westward, diverted in its triumphant, onward march by the waters of the Pacific has now fairly turned northward toward the polar axis of the earth itself.

The dream of the Czars from Nicholas I to Alexander II of a friendly nation in the Western Hemisphere with themselves in power on the opposite shores of the same ocean, now gives assurance of certain realization.

A new factor of adverse interest, however, in this commercial supremacy confronts the Empire of the North in the renaissance of Oriental power foreshadowed in the progressive march in peace and war of the Imperial archipelago under the sway of the Mikado.

In the meantime American civilization, like the mariner's compass, will point to the pole northward until Miss Columbia and the Russian Bear extend their felicitations across the straits, which wed the waters of the Pacific with those of the Arctic ocean.

The statesman-like forecast of manifest destiny in the distant North, which had been treated at the time with so much ribald comment and criticism, has now been amply vindicated.

In 1892, which is the latest compiled exhibit of imports and exports of Alaskan imports footed up the handsome total of \$2,164,000, at the same time the exports from the territory reached the still more handsome sum of \$7,759,000.

An amount of over five and one-half million dollars five years ago to the credit of a region for which but a quarter of a century before \$7,200,000 were paid in bulk.

It may be interesting to have an itemized exhibit of this marvelous progress on the standards of trade. This would run as follows: 789,294 cases of canned salmon, which realized \$3,157,000; 186,-

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250 pounds of whalebone, at \$1,200,000; gold bullion, \$707,000; gold and silver ore, \$400,000; seal skins, \$755,000; furs, \$439,000; not to speak of furs, &c., from Southeastern Alaska, \$357,000; besides 7,500 tons of codfish, valued at \$351,000; 9,000 barrels of salted salmon, realizing \$81,000; 1,000 pounds of ivory, \$5,000; 12,228 barrels of whale oil, \$103,000, and other oil and guano, \$114,000.

This, in 1867, was the land of glaciers, eternal fogs, blinding snows, intense cold, tundra, volcanoes and every other conceivable offspring of Dame Nature, hostile to the habitation and activities of man, according to some newspapers.

The 87 trading houses, located in 60 towns and villages along the coast and rivers, will, in another decade or two, yield the San Franciscos the Portlands and the Seattles of sub-Arctic States of the American Union competing for the mastery of the trade and commerce of the Pacific.

To the enormous output of fish, furs, whalebone, ivory, oils, gold and silver bullion, and ores, and lumber with the increase of a land population will be added the products of the gardens and the fields.

The proximity of the Japan stream which sweeps eastward along the Aleutian chain and bends southward in the bight under the mighty mass of St. Elias, sweeps by the coast of Alaska, British Columbia, Washington, Oregon and California, where it swirls westward, enveloping Hawaii in its warming waters, making all those vast regions suited to the habitation of a large population employed in the arts and industries of civilized life.

Taking the base line of Alaska, 54 degrees, 40 minutes north latitude, we find north of that parallel in Europe the northern portions of Ireland, the great shipyards of the Clyde, the textile works of Paisley and industries of Glasgow and Edinburg, besides almost the whole of Scotland and Denmark, all of Norway and Sweden and one-half of Russia.

The capital of the Territory, Sitka, is 57

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degrees, or three degrees over 200 statute miles south of St. Petersburg, the capital of the Russian Empire, and Stockholm, of Sweden, and but one degree north of Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark. The city of St. Petersburg lies 15 degrees, or nearly 1,000 statute miles, arcticward of the southern parallel of Alaska.

The glaciers so much drawn in the pen pictures of Alaska then and now are found under similar conditions of altitude, if not of latitude, in the heart of Europe.

The coast of the Baltic and of the North Seas teem with population and wealth in latitudes far north of the southern line of demarcation of Alaska.

On the 12th day of August, 1869, but five months after William H. Seward had laid aside the cares of state, we find him addressing "citizens of Alaska" as "Fellow-citizens of the United States," in Sitka, the very capital of the possession which he had won over from the Empire of Russia.

He had enjoyed a triumphal progress through the Pacific States and the newly acquired possessions of his country, and was received with manifest cordiality by the subjects of Queen Victoria in the colonial dependency of British Columbia.

In his speeches at Sitka, Victoria and Salem he foretold with prophetic vision the future of the vast region which stretches from the confines of Mexico to the topmost limits of the American hemisphere impinging on the Arctic Ocean.

With an instinctive realization of opportunity his ideal of American destiny rose to the grade of heroism when exclaiming to his hearers under the flaunting folds of the emblem of British dominion at Victoria, "British Columbia must be governed in conformity with society upon the American continent. If the Government comes in conflict with the interests of the United States we can easily see what will happen."

As we review the sentiment and phrasing of these speeches among the very peo-

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ple whose destiny was so intimately associated with the future not only of their own shores, but of the vast Alaskan sea coast, and inland area, they read like prophesy.

It is to be said of Mr. Seward that his public career as a whole had been a sequence of logical deductions from instructive and comprehensive Americanism.

He never failed to characterize, as did Sumner, the solution of the boundary question which gave Vancouver and the other islands and coast from 49 degrees to 54-40 to Great Britain as the basest act of any administration in American history.

In a conversation with Mr. Seward, then ex-Secretary of State, in China in 1869-70, he could not express himself on the bungling course of the Department of State in that transaction with adequate emphasis.

"To yield anything on that coast to England was not only absolute blindness to the future but little less than treason to American destiny. There would have been no fighting. England would have blustered awhile. Her bark is worse than her bite. Now we may have to fight to get it back. When the time comes how long will our Americans in that region put up with any nonsense from England?"

"I shall answer that. Just about as long as Americans put up with Mexico interfering with American ideas in the Republic of Texas. Mark it. The issue will come. It is bound to come, sooner or later. I may not see it, but you may. It is manifest destiny that the Pacific shores of the Western Hemisphere, from the Gulf of California to the North Pole shall be under the jurisdiction of the United States. And it will be the dominance of American institutions and sentiment which will do it. I believe peacefully. As for taking it, it is even now more possible for the American people on the Pacific, backed by the power and wealth at Washington, than it was for

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the thirteen colonies with their itinerary Congress, ill-armed, ill-clad and ill-fed continentals and continental shinplasters nearly a century ago to wrest from England, then in the height of her military aggressions, our original domain."

Alaskan Possibilities.

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Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER III.

**The President Watching the
Course of Events.**

**The Star of Destiny Turns Polar-
ward.**

**Secretary Seward's Arctic Commonwealth
a Probability.**

**The Pioneer Days of '49 and the Growth
of Empire Repeating Itself.**

The President and chiefs of the Executive Departments which come in direct touch with territorial affairs were early in frequent conference upon the prospective conditions and demands of Alaska.

The sudden burst of that sub-Arctic and Arctic possession into enticing fields for human cupidity brought with it problems of administration and public economy which had to be promptly met. It was the firm belief in administration circles that the stampede for the golden land of the North had come to stay. Its abatement on account of inaccessibility, it was thought, would prove but the temporary gorging of the tide which would break forth again in the coming spring with irresistible eagerness and numbers.

The tales of hardship and even death, coupled with the accounts of fabulous wealth acquired simply for the gathering

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from the golden streams, only served to tempt the hardihood endurance and defiance of the assembling multitude. The Government authorities were not influenced in their consideration of ways and means to meet the sudden emergency by random accounts more or less accurate or exaggerated, but had before them official reports from authorized agents which confirmed in the main the unofficial statements.

From every section of the United States, from South America, Europe, Australia, and even Asia, individuals and parties were reported abandoning their vocations and bending their steps toward points in proximity to the golden land in order to be prepared to avail themselves of the first opening of the season to make a dash.

The President and Congress, therefore, found themselves face to face with a condition for which they must be ready. The influx of a sudden and large emigration into the territory not only in the search for gold but in established vocations which must always attend the aggregation of civilized man in communities, it was expected, would necessitate action at once.

It was therefore apparent that a large share of the attention of Congress would be taken up in meeting the requirements of the new situation in the vast domain of the republic north of the famous 54-40 line of north latitude.

The President, in his annual message to Congress dealt largely with this new and novel question of executive administration and made certain recommendations on the subject of necessary legislation.

The neglected condition in which the territory of Alaska was left from the date of the cession from Russia, March 30th, 1867, down to 1884, a space of seventeen years, covering a portion or the whole of the administrations of Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield and Arthur, was remedied in 1884 by the enactment by Congress of a law creating a district government. This provided a governor and

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district court. The laws of the State of Oregon were applied to the district. In July, 1897, the mineral laws of the United States; the town site-laws, providing for the incorporation of town sites and acquirement of title thereto from the Government to the trustees; the law providing for trade and manufactures, giving each qualified person 160 acres of land in a square and compact form were declared applicable by a decision of the United States General Land Office to Alaska. From the coal land regulations and the public-land laws, the territory of Alaska was excluded in terms in those laws themselves.

The details of administration under the district form of government have been conducted in the Department of the Interior and executed on the ground by a governor, clerk of the court ex-officio, secretary of Alaska, surveyor general, register of the land office, receiver of the public moneys, all located at Sitka.

There are also resident commissioners at Sitka, Wrangle, Unalaska, Juneau, Kodiak, Circle City, St. Michaels, Dyea and Unaga.

The district judiciary under the Department of Justice consists of a District Judge, United State Attorney and assistant and United States Marshal resident at Sitka, but sitting alternately at Sitka and Wrangel.

The military control under the War Department is through the Military Department of the Columbia, with headquarters at Vancouver Barracks, Washington.

The vast region prior to 1884 was under the control of the chartered stipulations of trading companies, the operations of the steamship lines and divers enterprising business projects subject to the general laws of the United States.

The peaceful character of the inhabitants rendered the occupation of the territory by a military force unnecessary.

In a communication of May 20th, 1867, fifty days after the conclusion of the treaty of cession, Major General H. W. Halleck, then in command at San

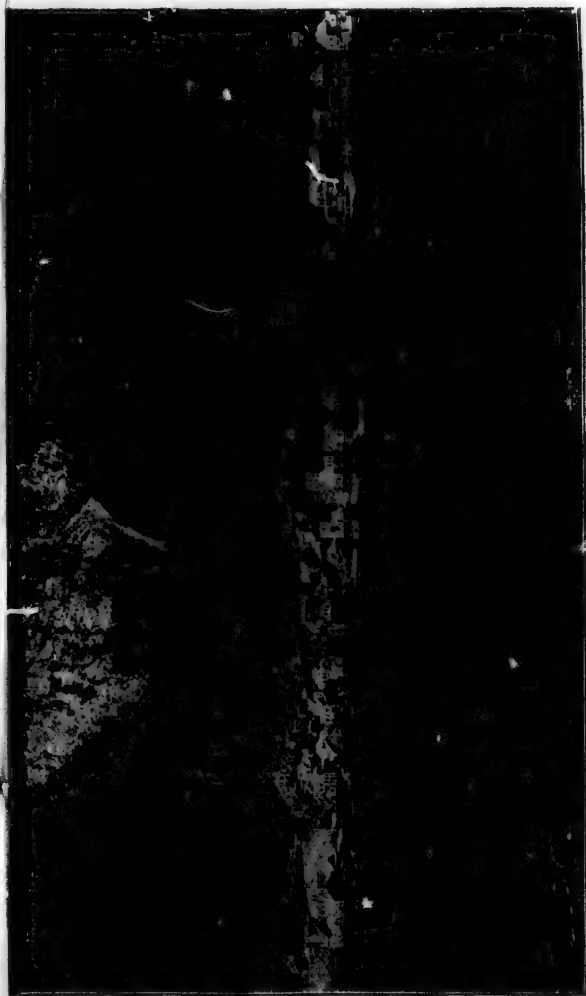
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Francisco, recommended to Secretary of War Stanton the establishment of four military posts of one company of infantry each at New Archangel, in Sitka Bay; Cook's Inlet, Kadiak, and Uvalaska. This elaborate scheme, however, was never carried out, the region being left to take its chances until necessity required a form of government to meet the simple requirements then existing.

In a report of 1868, from General Halleck, one year after the cession, the population of Alaska was put down at 82,400. To this were added 11,900 Thlinket Indians, in a report to the Indian Commissioner by Rev. Vincent Collyer, making in all 94,300. In the census of 1880 the population was stated at 33,426, and in 1890, the first in detail, 4,298 whites, 23,531 Indians, 2,288 Mongolians, 1,935 mixed-blood or 32,052.

The impression prevails in Government circles that the rush for gold in the Klondike region will spread into the domain of the United States and will demand a more enlarged system of government. Whether it will require the elaborate details of a territorial form which has answered the necessities of all the States in their embryotic condition will be determined by the effect which the Klondike rush will have upon the permanent occupation and settlement of the regions on the American side of the line and at the various trading stations. The number of the latter in Alaska in 1891 was eighty-seven, located in sixty towns and villages, stretching from Portland Canal in north latitude 54-40 to Point Barrow on the shores of the Arctic Ocean and from the Alaska Peninsula to Attu, at the Asiaward end of the Aleutian chain of islands.

The irregular system of transportation afforded by special conveyances on shore, on the rivers and along the coasts has interfered with complete or even approximately accurate statistical information, but trade in general merchandise as imports and the varied articles of export, has enormously expanded within the past few years.



Juneau, Southeastern Alaska.

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The increase for 1897 was considered but the beginning of what may develop. The monopoly of the Russian company which prohibited any systematic attempt to open the resources of the land and sea to the exploitation and development of an enlightened emigration, was to a great extent continued by the American company. It has only been since the immense resources of the region have become known and particularly the sudden road to wealth by the golden route, both in Alaska and the now famous Klondike region, that commercial enterprise, traffic and general business have directed themselves that way for active and profitable employment.

The course of empire which was taking its westward way by the commonplace methods of natural expansion in 1848, suddenly electrified by the talismanic cry of gold! gold! broke forth into an irresistible torrent toward the golden American occident.

A commonwealth rose as if by magic on the distant shores of the Pacific. Thus impeded in its march by the resistance of a vast expanse of ocean the star of empire changed its course northward until to-day the cry is poleward the course of empire takes its way.

It is now a pertinent question to ask: Are we on the verge of a repetition of the remarkable experiences of the pioneer days of California.

In the course of over three hundred years from the time of Bernal Diaz del Castillo, an officer under Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico, who first named California (Caliente Formalla, hot furnace) progress was almost infinitesimal compared with the experiences of three years after the cry of gold went forth from the little mill race of the Americanized Badense German, John Augustus Sutter.

In order to form some idea of the remarkable transition in less years than you can count upon the fingers of one hand, it may be in place to say that the Spaniards established their first missionary and military stations in the region known as Cal-

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ifornia in 1698. They founded a mission on the Bay of San Francisco in 1776. In 1822 the people threw off the yoke of Spain and secularized the government of the Jesuits. In 1824 the country became subject to Mexico. In 1831 the inhabitants numbered 23,000. In 1836 California became virtually independent of Mexico. In 1843-6 a steady tide of emigration set in from the United States and occupied the arable lands.

On May 11th, 1846 the Congress of the United States declared war with Mexico. The same year the army of the United States occupied the territory. After an unvarying course of victory as masters of the entire region California became an integral part of the Union under the treaty Guadalupe Hidalgo, restoring peace with Mexico, July 2d, 1848.

By a remarkable coincidence in the course of events the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo and the discovery of gold in California transpired in the same month of the same year. Following in the train of peace the announcement of the discovery of gold attracted a mighty torrent of emigration from every State and territory of the Union and every part of the globe.

These two events fixed the manifest destiny of the American Occident. The organization of the region into a territory followed almost immediately. In 1850, but two years and seven months after the discovery of gold, California was enrolled as the eighteenth State added to the original thirteen, the second in area and thirtieth in population. In 1860, after a career of ten years, it ranked twenty-fifth in population in the list of thirty-four States, having made the enormous stride from 93,000 in 1850, to 380,000 inhabitants in 1860. The census of 1890 gave it 1,208,130, or twenty-second in a list of forty-four States. Under the impulse of the discovery of gold as a stimulus to emigration and the development of the marvelous agricultural, mineral and forest wealth of the country with their requirements of commercial, financial, mer-

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cantile, professional and non-professional enterprise and occupation California from the foot of the list of thirty-two States, in four decades, jumped to twenty-two in the list of forty-four in population.

But the course of empire did not stop here. In its poleward way along the shores of the Pacific in less than a single decade, the spirit of colonization and enterprise spread beyond the limits of the golden mother State of the American occident into the fertile valleys of the Columbia and the Willamette, and in 1859 added Oregon as the twentieth State in admission, the third in size and thirty-fifth in population in 1890; with its immense agricultural and commercial advantages, the wealth of its streams in fish of commercial value. In three decades later the poleward march of empire reached the extreme northwestern corner of the national domain, bordering on the present British possessions of Columbia, where lumber, grazing, cereals and coal, and 350,000 inhabitants, in 1889, added the State of Washington the twenty-ninth to the "Old Thirteen," the twelfth in area and thirty-eighth in population. With these facts before us who can predict the future of the vast possessions of the Republic which lie beyond the intervening strip of British possessions, which Charles Sumner in a great speech publicly declared a menace and a most ignominious surrender of a strategic territory by a powerful nation.

The first rush of adventurers, followed by the flowing tide of emigration to California in pioneer days were confronted by the toil and expense of immense distances measured in miles by the thousands, both by land and by sea, the perils of the unrelenting storms of Cape Horn, the death breeding miasmas of the Isthmus of Darien, and the toilsome stretches of plains, deserts and mountain ranges, infested by bloodthirsty savages, all of which make the modern facilities of access to the very gateways to the

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coveted golden deposits in Alaska and the Klondike almost child's play.

With lines of railroads from all points on the Atlantic seaboard and in the inter-oceanic States, to the seaboard cities of the Pacific, and the splendid lines of steamers from San Francisco, Portland and Seattle to points of access to the mountain defiles or the Yukon, renders the means of reaching the mountain treasure lands of the interior one of comparative ease. The remaining difficulties of transportation will also soon be overcome by modern appliances of travel.

The possibilities of Alaska as a political division of the Federal Union may be the wonder of the dawn of the twentieth century. In area it is more than twice the size of Texas, and in population more than had California at the time of the discovery of gold.

If the prospective rush of gold hunters into the Klondike and Alaska and the influx of merchants, artisans and laborers incident to the wants of a mining population should be realized, these sudden accessions to the resident population engaged in the industries of the sea and shore may witness in Alaska the establishment of a territorial form of government with a legislature and other equipment for the administration of executive, legislative and judicial functions, before the close of the Fifty-fifth Congress.

The territory itself would be capable in the progress of years, of contributing six commonwealths to the Federal Union, each possessing its own distinctive physical characteristics, products and fields of remunerative industry.

After crossing the ignominious break, as Charles Sumner characterized it, in terms of the most sovereign contempt, in the continuity of present empire along the eastern shores of the Pacific Ocean is reached what is known geographically as Southeastern Alaska.

The area of this section, 29,980 square miles, lacking only 3,000 square miles of being as large as the State of Maine, comprises the mainland from Portland Canal

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in 54 degrees, 40 minutes, north latitude, where Alaska begins northward to Mount St. Elias, including the islands of the Alexander archipelago. This region is covered with forests of valuable woods of commerce, abounds in coal and possesses unexploited gold bearing quartz. In this section are situated Sitka, Juneau and Dyce, two degrees in latitude south of Christiana, Norway, with 151,000, Stockholm in Sweden with 247,000, and St. Petersburg, Russia, with 1,100,000 inhabitants.

The fishing and canning interests are enormous and much of the soil is arable.

The Kadiak division on the north, 14,610 square miles or 2,500 square miles larger than the State of Maryland, includes the south side of the Alaska Peninsula with the Kadiak group and other islands. It is mountainous, rising to 12,000 feet, intersected by glaciers, but abounds in valuable forests which are also the haunts of valuable fur-bearing animals. Coal and gold have also been found in paying quantities.

The Aleutian division, 14,610 square miles, as large as Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, takes in the western side of the Alaska Peninsula, and with the chain of islands, including the Probilof group, the breeding place and resort of the valuable fur-bearing seals reaches out to the mid-Pacific speck of land known as Attu, which stands like a sentinel of the mighty deep gazing out upon the Kamtchatkan shores of Asia.

Advancing poleward we next reach the Kuskokwim division, embracing 114,975 square miles of area or the size of Arizona, including the extensive interior Alaskan plains and mountains drained into Bering Sea by the Kuskokwim and Tonana Rivers in the latitude of Central Sweden and Norway and northern Russia. The salmon fisheries are large and valuable, but the products of the soil are limited.

The Yukon division, known from the mighty river and valley of that name,

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comprises 176,715 square miles or an area almost equal to California, extending along Bering Sea toward the straits. The trade of the Yukon and its tributaries in lumber, fish and the supply of the gold hunters with the necessities and even comforts of life will develop to extensive proportions.

Along the Arctic circle and beyond extends the vast region embracing 125,245 square miles, about the size of New Mexico, which covers the entire north-western corner of the North American Hemisphere along the Bering straits and the Arctic Ocean in north latitude about 66 degrees. The most northerly American settlement at Point Barrow, about 72 degrees, at the highest point of the mainland, jutting into the Arctic Ocean, is the rendezvous of fleets of sailing craft of all kinds engaged in whaling, hunting and trading. A brisk traffic is also carried on with the hardy inhabitants along the Arctic Alaskan coast and the neighboring shores of Asia.

The policy of Nicholas I, Emperor of Russia, when he proposed the cession of this same territory to the United States as early as 1844, in this day has the ring of true statesmanship. It may also have in the shortsightedness of some of our own statesmen ere we know it the glory of war. The campaign yell of "54-40 or fight" may be a serious realization unless circumvented by the peaceful annexation of a region which must otherwise remain a slander upon American diplomacy and power and a thorn in the side of the American people.

It was a perennial source of interest to the eminent statesman who secured by his skill in diplomacy this valuable domain, to picture an ideal Arctic commonwealth revelling in the abundant riches of the Alaskan seas and rivers, valleys and mountains. The time seems approaching when the fervid fancies of William H. Seward oft portrayed in his lucid flow of imagery and words to the writer may become a magnificent realization.

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It is not impossible that American citizens living to-day may witness in the growth of population and enterprise in the United States a line of American commonwealths extending northward and facing upon the very axis of this mundane sphere itself.

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UNFURLING THE FLAG

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER IV.

How Alaska Was Transferred from Russian to American Dominion.

A Picturesque Scene of Interna- tional Ceremony and Salute.

"Old Glory" Floating from Tropical to Arctic Lands.

During the icy grasp of winter, which had commenced to overspread the gloomy defiles which pierce the mountain ramparts of the coast and penetrate the glistening vales of the Upper Yukon, the whole country counted the dreary days which must elapse ere sunshine and warmth could break the myterious silence and tell the world of the fate of six thousand fellow-countrymen tempted into the frigid jaws of the Arctic in pursuit of golden wealth.

The tension to which the Secretary of State felt himself subjected pending the negotiation of the treaty of cession of the Russian-American territory to the United States of America was unmistakable. The crafty statesman saw his opportunity in

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the petition of the enterprising citizens of Washington Territory. They asked for trading facilities. He asked for Empire.

The intimacy which had long ago sprung up between the veteran Edouard de Stoeckl, the Russian Envoy, and William H. Seward, the Secretary of State, was almost brotherly. They were much together in off-duty personal sociabilities and enjoyed frequent outings, piscatorially, convivially and otherwise. De Stoeckl began his diplomatic career in Washington years before Mr. Seward appeared upon the scene. He was *charge d'affaires ad int.* in 1849, under the *envoyship* of that other genial Russian diplomat, Alexander de Bodisco. The latter married one of Washington's charming suburban maidens, thereby becoming also the hero of one of the prettiest of our capital romances of love at first sight and a happy life after marriage.

It was de Stoeckl who succeeded Bodisco in 1854 and continued his most satisfactory career at Washington until 1869. He represented successively two Emperors, Nicholas I and Alexander II, and held diplomatic intercourse with seven administrations, beginning with Zachary Taylor and ending with U. S. Grant. He was Envoy when the proffer of the Russian possessions was made to Pierce and was declined by that Executive imbecile and again to the Buchanan administration.

This might have been a success had not secession: its attempted political dissolution of the Union and real war sprung upon the country. The glory of that diplomatic achievement might have fallen to Lewis Cass, who had been one of the foremost champions of "54-40 or fight" in 1844, and was then at the head of the Department of State, or to Jeremiah S. Black, his ante-Rebellion successor.

The unfortunate strife was over, the Union was unbroken and at peace. The men for the occasion were in power; the deed was done.

The success of the negotiation which had so often missed fire afforded a great relief to Mr. Seward. His happiness over

the event even exalted him to a degree of hilarity which he did not hide from his friends. His first thought was of obligation toward his friend de Stoeckl, whom he embraced several times and affectionately called my dear Stoeckl.

Although the payment of the sum agreed upon became involved in the reconstruction, patronage and impeachment contentions between the President and Congress, after a long and bitter parliamentary struggle, the amount was voted and the transaction closed.

The possibility of so much delay did not enter the thoughts of the Secretary of State. In fact it was evident from his conversation at the time that he would not have given any attention to them if they had.

There never was a time when William H. Seward shrank from the courage of his convictions. He realized that he was a conspicuous object in the differences between the executive and the legislative branches, but undeterred by the uncertainties of his own official future or that of the administration, he went ahead with the acquiescence of the Emperor's Government to complete the cession by the transfer of the territory to the United States.

The special session of the Fortieth Congress, which had convened in March, 1867, had shown no disposition to provide the purchase money stipulated in the treaty with Russia.

Mr. Seward at once realized the situation. After waiting fully a month, in an interview as to the probable course of Congress, the Secretary said with much emphasis:

"Stoeckl understands our politics and the heated, harmless contentions which sometimes spring up in the administration of affairs. But we will carry out everything to the letter."

"I have notified Minister de Stoeckl that the President has named General Rousseau to receive the ceded territory." It is possible the Secretary observing a look of incredulity remarked: "I know

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the treaty has not been ratified by the Senate, but that will come along."

The appointment of General Rousseau was announced to the Russian Minister May 13th, but the ratification did not occur until the 28th of the same month, 1867. "We will hoist the American flag over the territory. If by any act of authority from any source it should be hauled down the men who thus dishonor their country will be doubly dishonored before their constituents and the people and the world."

The appropriation of the money was not made by Congress until fourteen months after. But that did not deter the President of the United States from exchanging ratifications on June 20th, 1867, and the proclamation of the treaty by the United States on the same day.

The Government having been notified, Captain Pestchouroff, the Russian Commissioner to formally deliver the territory to the United States, soon arrived at Washington with the necessary instructions. When the handsome Russian naval captain with his warlike trappings appeared with the minister at the department to pay his respects and show his credentials the Secretary afterward remarked: "You see, the proceedings are going forward. We would like to have the money first, but the ceremony will go on. It will take some time to arrange the details, but they will go on."

In the early days of the autumn month of October, 1869, the United States steam sloop Ossipee, Captain George F. Emmons, escorted in her historic voyage by the United States vessels of war Resaca, Captain Bradford, and Jamestown, Captain McDougal, proudly bore northward, into the solitudes of the Alaskan Gulf, the colors of the Republic to be raised in token of dominion over the vast domain north of Portland channel. Her commander, a native of Vermont, had devoted much of his active seafaring life to the Pacific seas. He had been in the Wilkes exploring expedition in the Antarctic and Pacific

Oceans, 1838-41. He had commanded a surveying cruise in the Pacific islands, having frequent engagements with the natives. He led a successful exploration of the regions south of the Columbia to the headwaters of the Sacramento and through California to San Francisco, in 1841, having had numerous conflicts with the savages, and performed heroic sea and shore duty in Upper and Lower California during the war with Mexico.

Also on the vessel was Brigadier General Lovell H. Rosseau, the American Commissioner. That officer, a Kentuckian by birth, had settled in Indiana and soon after entered the Legislature. In the war with Mexico, in the battle of Buena Vista, he lost one-third of the men of his company, but falling back to the hacienda held the position, thus contributing largely to that brilliant victory. Upon his return he was elected to the Indiana Senate, but removing to Kentucky, became a staunch friend of the Union. He was chosen colonel of the Fifth Kentucky Volunteers and rose to Brigadier General in Buell's army. He fought gallantly at Shiloh and was promoted to major general for bravery at Perryville in October, 1862. After the close of the war, having been elected to Congress as representative from Kentucky in July, 1866, he became involved in a knock-down encounter on the floor of the House with a fellow-member, Josiah B. Grinnell, of Iowa, for which he was publicly censured, and resigned.

Having enlisted the friendship of Andrew Johnson by testifying in his behalf in the impeachment trial, he was made Brigadier General and Brevet Major General in the United States army, in March, 1867. Immediately after he was designated by the President, as we have seen, to officially receive Alaska from the Russian Government and assume control of the Territory.

The men-of-war having anchored in the magnificent Bay of Sitka, Gen. Jefferson C. Davis, in command of the United States troops, on a transport ship at anchor in

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the harbor, informed the Commissioners of his arrival.

After communicating with the Russian Governor on shore the time and form of ceremony of transfer was arranged.

The 18th day of October, 1867, on the island of Baranof was one which we might expect in the same month in the latitude of New England. The temperature stood at 54 degrees. The little capital Sitka stretched in isolated patches along the low strip of land on the west, with Mount Edgecumbe, the landmark of the bay, towering above to the dizzy height of 8,000 feet.

At 3 o'clock in the afternoon the troops from the Ninth United States Infantry, naval officers, seamen and marines, in full uniform, in launches from the three men-of-war began to move in martial array toward the shore. General Davis, with the guard of honor, twenty United States soldiers from the Second Artillery, bearing the United States flag, took the lead.

In the meantime the Russian garrison of 100 men under Captain Heroustz, in dark blue uniform, red facings and flat glazed caps, marched to the Governor's house and formed on the right of the Government flagstaff. The United States troops from the landing took position on the left of the staff, the Russians presenting arms as they passed.

The Russian ladies, Princess Maksoutoff, wife of the Governor, and daughter of the Vice Governor and three others were joined by six American ladies, the wives of General Davis and other officers.

At half-past 3 o'clock Prince Maksoutoff, the Governor, and the Commissioners General Rousseau and Captain Pestchouroff advanced and, taking position near the flagstaff, were saluted by the troops. At the proper moment Captain Pestchouroff signalled to lower the Russian flag. As soon as the Imperial colors began to descend the roar of a gun from the United States warship Ossipee reverberated across the water. It was immediately answered by a gun from the Russian batteries on shore. Thus alter-

nating from ship and shore, twenty-one guns were fired by each, the troops of both nations presenting arms.

Captain Pestchouroff, stepping forward, addressed the American Commissioner: "By the authority of His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, I transfer to you as agent of the United States the territory and dominion now possessed by His Majesty on the continent of America and on the adjacent islands according to the treaty made between the two governments."

General Rousseau, responding, said: "I accept from you as agent of His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, the territory and dominion which you have transferred to me as Commissioner on the part of the United States to receive the same."

The Star Spangled Banner of the Republic was bent to the halyards by two American sailors. A midshipman of the United States and the 15-year-old son of the American Commissioner began to raise the ensign slowly to the top of the staff. As it began to rise and unfurl its folds a gun boomed forth from the Russian batteries. A moment later back echoed a responsive roar from the United States vessels-of-war. Thus alternating, gun for gun, the flag of the Republic was raised aloft until 21 were fired by each in ratification of the jurisdiction of the Constitution, laws and treaties of the United States over a region as vast in area as France, Germany and Spain combined.

It was among the incidents of the occasion to note the heroic composure of the Princess Maksoutoff during the ceremonies.

After the flag of her Emperor had disappeared for ever from its place of majesty and dominion on the American Continent she retired to her apartments and wept bitterly.

The Russian official household and civil and military personnel returned to their quarters to prepare for their return to their home and country across the broad Pacific. The United States troops estab-

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lished themselves in the vacated defenses.

Ever since, sunrise reveille in that far northern land has greeted the unfurling flag of the Republic as the emblem of American dominion.

With the march of enterprise the region has been opened to industries on land and and water. The flag of the Republic now waves from Portland channel to Point Barrow, on the Polar Sea. American vessels of war, revenue and commerce now traverse Alaskan waters, on established lines of duty and traffic.

The people, not only of the United States, but of the civilized world, now await the marvelous revelations which the future twelve months may bring forth.

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Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER V.

A Parliamentary Battle Royal for Alaska.

How the \$7,200,000 Purchase Money Was Won.

While a Minority Quibbled for Extra-Con- stitutional Prerogatives the Limitation Expired.

All Might Have Been Lost--How It Looks To-Day.

The Fortieth Congress of the United States, which began its somewhat erratic parliamentary career in special session on March 4th, 1867, by proclamation of President Andrew Johnson, embraced an unsevered Union but a still unreconstructed representation in the constituent assembly of the sovereign people, comprised of the thirty-seven Commonwealths of that period. These Commonwealths were classified by the results of the Rebellion of the Southern States then terminated, about two years, into twenty-six States which remained steadfast in the Union, eight States which had seceded

and were not yet admitted to representation, and three States partially so by action of the House, judging of the qualifications of its own members.

The perplexing subject of reconstruction of the Union so far as the restoration of the representation of the seceded States in Congress was concerned still largely engrossed the attention of both Houses.

With at least four-fifths of the personnel I had a personal acquaintance and recall vividly their characteristics and physical appearances, foibles and capabilities.

This fact seemed to impress itself with noticeable force upon the adroit man at the helm of international relations during the most intricate and dangerous period since the time of English arrogance and French assumptions in the beginning of the century. It constituted a leverage of closer acquaintance and a certain amount of freedom of conversation which otherwise might not have existed, even with the prestige of a foremost metropolitan journal at my back and a natural preference for nativity and residence.

It was not difficult to gratify the inquisitorial methods of conversation of the great Secretary, but to receive information in return was more so on account of his instinctively secretive habit.

It was not unusual to find myself the interviewee instead of the interviewer, and to leave his interesting presence but little wiser than I went and with a self-consciousness of having been well "pumped."

Upon these occasions the Secretary, however, never wavered in his confidence of ultimate success. "I have all faith," said he, "in the honor of the American people. Public sentiment will demand the carrying out of the pecuniary considerations of the cession. No one of impartial judgment can honestly question the exclusive right of the Executive to negotiate and the Senate to ratify treaties with foreign powers. There can be nothing left in honor for the House but to appropriate the money. It having

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received the vise so to speak of the upper House acting in an advisory and consenting capacity with the Executive."

As I have already mentioned, the convention for the cession of the Russian Dependencies in North America to the United States of America was concluded March 30th, 1867. The Senate, part of the treaty-making power under the national Constitution, was summoned into executive session by the President to consider that convention and to take such action as its judgment might determine.

One of the foremost champions of ratification was Charles Sumner, a Senator of the United States from Massachusetts. His speech on the ceded territory from an international, strategic, political, civil and economic point of view, will ever stand as a lasting tribute to his glory as an orator, a statesman and a patriot. The convention having been ratified, the necessary two-thirds of the Senators present concurring, a quorum being present, the ratifications were exchanged June 20th, 1867, and the convention was proclaimed on the same day.

The sixth article of that convention stipulated "in consideration of the cession" the United States agreed "to pay at the Treasury in Washington ten months after the exchange of ratifications" * * "to the diplomatic representative or other agent of His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, duly authorized to receive the same, \$7,200,000," &c.

The first session of the Fortieth Congress after sharing in the contentious spirit which had arisen between the Executive and Legislative departments of the Government on March 30th, the day of the conclusion of the Russian convention, adjourned to July 3d. After a continuation of the same tactics with increasing tension during this fragment of the session on the 20th of the same month, the Congress adjourned to November 21st.

Upon assembling again for the third time in eight months, C. C. Washburn, of Wisconsin, who always reminded me of an over-grown school boy, drew the lines

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of a contest on a resolution that in the
"Present financial condition of the coun-
try any more purchases of territory are
inexpedient and this House will feel itself
under no obligation to vote money to pay
for any such purchases unless there shall
be more urgent and pressing necessity
than now exists."

Although the tactful chairman of the
Committee on Foreign Affairs, Gen. Na-
thaniel P. Banks, a man of the people,
objected, the resolution was passed by a
decisive vote.

Its author, however, disclaimed any
application to "Walrussia," as he termed
that region in his antiquated nomencla-
ture, but to the pending negotiations with
Denmark for St. Thomas and the group
of the Virgin Isles. He shouted that he
would serve notice on Denmark that we
would not pay; still louder he served
"notice on the world that we would not
pay for acquisitions not demanded." No
doubt the world heard and made "note
on't."

This final fragment of the first (special)
session of the Fortieth Congress seemed
to have caught the idea of American des-
tiny, which was so realistically brought
forward in the Russian acquisition and
the proposed purchase of St. Thomas.

On the same day George F. Miller, of
the Harrisburg district of Pennsylvania,
introduced a joint resolution to annex
Mexico to the United States.

Earlier in the session Gen. Banks, chair-
man of the Committee on Foreign Af-
fairs, introduced a joint resolution "re-
garding with solicitude the proposed con-
federation of the Provinces on the North-
ern frontiers of the United States from
ocean to ocean without consulting the peo-
ple to be united upon monarchical prin-
ciples in contravention of the traditions
and principles of this Government tending
to increase the embarrassments already
existing between the two Governments."

After an interesting colloquy the joint
resolution passed without a division.

Mr. Washburn, of Wisconsin, took time

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to oppose a resolution in favor of the Irish Fenians.

Mr. Miller, of Pennsylvania, again took up the parliamentary cudgels in a joint resolution on the day of final adjournment of this "extraordinary" session for "the purchase and annexation to the United States, of British Columbia, including Vancouver Island, provided it could be accomplished upon such fair and honorable terms as might be satisfactory to both nations."

This "J. R." by reference, found its way into the parliamentary catacombs of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, but its resuscitation in the prospective developments of that quarter of the hemisphere, in touch with American institutions and American citizens, may be found nearer at hand than now appears in the procession of events.

I have already had occasion to allude to the views of William H. Seward himself, expressed three years later in the chief city of that very region.

The very red-faced, rotund aristocratic patriot of the Democratic persuasion, John V. L. Pruyn, gave the Badger statesman one under the chin, figuratively speaking, in a suggestion that if the majority had listened to the suggestion of the minority (his party associates in the House) the Treasury "would have saved fifty times enough to pay for Russian America, St. Thomas and all other purchases of foreign territory contemplated

This enlightened gentleman of the old school thought national honor, national by the Government."

position and national strength demanded it, but he also desired to extend American institutions over the whole continent. After all these glorious pyrotechnics "on the floor" we find him dodging the vote when the passage of the appropriation was reached.

There resulted much parliamentary sparring on a proposition of the stately Wood, Fernando, of New York, on the reservation to the House of "the right to judge of the necessity and propriety of

making disbursements of the public money without reference to any action of the President and Senate in the acquisition of territory under that clause of the Constitution which vests in them the power to make treaties with foreign nations."

The second session of the Fortieth Congress assembled on December 3d, 1867. In the reference of the President's message to the committees that portion calling attention to the payment of the amount stipulated in the convention with Russia, gave rise to a parliamentary quibble in which Gen. Ben F. Butler, of Massachusetts; E. B. Washburn of Illinois, and C. C. Washburn, of Wisconsin, were notorious.

Mr. Washburn, of Wisconsin, opened in a studied effort, designed to be funny at the expense of Secretary Seward and the Russian convention, and also over the negotiations with Denmark for the Virgin Isles for a naval station.

"Thad" Stevens, a man of powerful physique, with a sledge-hammer method of logic, the undisputed leader of the Republican side, hobbled down the aisle on his club foot and threw a bomb among the factious spirits by declaring that the treaty had been negotiated and confirmed by the Senate and therefore the House had no alternative but to vote the money."

The same doctrine was held by Mr. J. V. L. Pruyn, of New York, a leader on the Democratic side.

At this juncture that long and lank specimen of an East Tennessean, Horace Maynard, President Hayes' Postmaster General three years later, befogged the querulous Washburn by remarking that "no doubt England seeing the embarrassment would take the bargain off our hands and pay both Russia and us a bonus. He would inquire from the gentleman from Wisconsin whether he would be willing to see such an eventuality."

The gentleman from the Badger State, not to be badgered on his own preserves, gazed in silence upon the loaded finger of

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scorn pointed at him by the gentleman from Tennessee.

The same Washburn took another sinch in his windsail, complaining that the treaty was conducted in secrecy—that the country was surprised when it was announced—that no man (including his opaque self of course) had asked for it—no public sentiment was in its favor (which was untrue)—no newspapers supported it (which was untrue; the New York Herald, of which I was a representative, was one of its foremost champions of the press, and so were many others).

He then paid his respects to the Secretary of State for "having exhausted the regions of ice and snow now turning his attention to the tropics," all of which branched out into a rigmarole which somewhat impeached his own knowledge of the geography of his own hemisphere.

The chairman on Foreign Affairs having called him down on his information concerning the contents of a confidential Senate document, he tried to explain that he came by it honestly, from which he branched into an account of how the new possessions were visited by Russian explorers, all of which was unknown to himself and consequently to the people of the United States till discovered by the Secretary of State. He referred to Jay's British treaty in the House in 1794 and to Jefferson as admitting that the Louisiana purchase had no warrant in the Constitution, but he justified it by imperious necessity.

The political confusion in Congress between the Executive Mansion and the Capitol, growing out of the President's "My Policy" programme, which had threatened as early as the Thirty-ninth Congress an effort to impeach, was rapidly hastening to a crisis.

On January 30th, 1868, the ten months limitation in the pecuniary stipulations of the convention of cession terminated.

It was apparent that Secretary Seward had anticipated delay not so much on account of any real danger of defeat when the vote was reached, but owing to the

temper of Congress toward the President.

To meet this emergency he had asked an extension of time, which was granted by the Russian Emperor.

The controversy with the President culminated in the House on March 2d, 1868, when the House of Representatives exhibited articles of impeachment in the name of themselves and all the people of the United States against Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, in maintenance and support of their impeachment against him for high crimes and misdemeanors in office.

These proceedings began on March 13th, and on May 26th following the President was acquitted by a vote, not guilty, 35; guilty, 19; or three less than the necessary two thirds.

Pending the sessions of the High Court of Impeachment in the upper wing of the Capitol, General Banks, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, on May 18th reported in the lower wing a bill, H. R. 1096, making an appropriation of money to carry into effect the treaty of March 30th, 1867 with Russia, with the majority report and asked permission for the minority to submit their report, also the correspondence granting an extension of time by Russia.

The debate began on June 30th, 1868, in committee of the whole House, James A. Garfield in the chair. General Banks, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, opened the discussion in behalf of the bill. After much speaking on both sides the vote was taken on July 14th, after a fortnight's parliamentary manoeuvring and talk.

During this period divers propositions by way of amendment asserting certain unconstitutional claims of the purely legislative branch of Congress were submitted by an unthinking minority. It would be a waste of time to enumerate these whereases and resolves which were purely supererogatory.

Thaddeus Stevens, of Pennsylvania, took occasion to read a sharp lecture to the infringers of the Constitution. Said

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he in his sententious way and in that peculiar rasping voice: "Every provision of the constitution is perfect—one department cannot encroach upon another—the President and Senate make treaties with no reference to other powers in the Government. When the Senate ratify and it is proclaimed it is a treaty and perfect. * * When was the House to be called upon to intervene, when they first began? That was never heard of. When the terms were offered? That was never heard of. When the terms were agreed upon and it went before the Senate for ratification, was this body then to be called in to State their objections? Such a thing was never heard of. We are to do certain things and Russia undertook to do certain other things. She has done them and we have not. Shall we repudiate our part of the obligation. That, sir, is the whole question."

The effect was conclusive.

The vote on the passage of the bill stood yeas, 113; nays, 43; not voting, 44.

On the same day the bill was received in the Senate from the House.

On July 17th Charles Sumner, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, moved to take up the House bill.

The Senate having struck out most of the House form substituted the simple words: "That there be and hereby is appropriated * * \$7,200,000 in coin to fulfill the stipulations contained in the sixth article of the treaty with Russia, concluded at Washington," etc.

The substitute passed without a division.

After several attempts to reconcile the differences in conference, on July 23d, General Banks, presenting the report to the House, demanded the previous question, which was ordered 74 to 48.

The quibblers for the unconstitutional interference of the House were on their feet yelling for recognition, Washburn, of Illinois, and Butler, of Massachusetts, shouting in unison, "an entire surrender of the House." Paine, of Wisconsin,

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moved to lay the report on the table, which was defeated.

In the midst of the uproar on agreeing to the conference report the vote stood yeas, 91; nays, 48; and not voting 77.

On July 25th, 1868, the Senate having concurred, the President pro tem. of the Senate, bluff old Benjamin F. Wade, of Ohio, and the Speaker of the House, "all smiles" Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, having signed the bill it was promptly approved by the President.

It will be interesting later to throw the search-lights of subsequent events upon the personality of this remarkable parliamentary struggle.

As in a Mirror.

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Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER VI.

A Pretty Kettle of Fish From the Alaskan Parliamentary Locker.

**Banks, Boutwell, Dawes, Garfield,
Samuel G. Randall, Thaddeus
Stevens, Windom and 106
Others Said Yea.**

**Allison, "Ben" Butler, Covode, Delano and
39 Others Said Nay.**

**James G. Blaine, Wm. D. Kelley and 42
Others Were Artful Dodgers.**

It is instructive in the light of events to take a look back to the circumstances and results which attended the course, through the 40th Congress of the United States, of the bill to appropriate the purchase money for the vast regions along the western shores of the Western Hemisphere north of latitude 54-40 degrees north and west of ten marine leagues along the coast northward to Mount St. Elias and longitude 141 degrees west,

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across the Pacific Ocean almost to within sight of the shores of Asia.

As a study of the bleared vision of statesmen so-called, narrowed up by local interests and an entirely inadequate realization or even appreciation of national interests, welfare or destiny, it will have its influence upon public opinion to-day. The nations of the world are establishing their "spheres of influence" by land "grabbing" projects and other schemes against the inevitable conflict of the mighty against the weak.

It cannot be said in palliation of the unpatriotic stand taken by Representatives who were supposed to be possessed of at least ordinary intelligence, that they were groping about in the dark. When the conclusion of the convention was announced the careful investigation which had been made by the far-seeing statesmen at the helm of foreign affairs, before the negotiations were commenced, was abundantly sustained by documents and correspondence from individuals in all stations of life and covering the broadest range of fact and experience.

The most notable of these contributions were embodied in a letter from Commodore John Rodgers, who had command of early exploring expeditions in those seas; an abstract from Prof. Spencer F. Baird, director of the Smithsonian Institution, communicating information from their two explorers giving accounts of climate, timber, soil, animals, fish, minerals, inhabitants, &c.: from Gen. M. C. Meigs, quartermaster-general U. S. A., a California pioneer in the army; Major General H. W. Halleck, commanding military division of the Pacific, May 22d, 1867, to Major General E. D. Townsend, A. A. G.; Perry McD. Collins, Chief of the Survey of the Overland Telegraph Company, and scores of others.

An instructive selection of this valuable congratulatory epistolary material communicated to the Secretary of State may be found in "House of Representatives Executive Document, No. 177, Fortieth Congress, Second Session," transmitted

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to that body in response to a resolution of December 19th, 1867.

That the allegation by Mr. Washburn, of La Crosse, that no newspapers supported the acquisition, was untrue, is demonstrated by reference to the following journals, to which he had access, as prominent in the long list: Boston Evening Transcript, April 11th, 1867; Philadelphia North American, April 12th, 1867; New York Herald, April 29th, 1867, a valuable and exhaustive article; Pacific Tribune, September 7th, 1867; New York Evening Post, November 5th; Alta, California special correspondent, October, 1867.

I have mentioned that Cadwallader C. Washburn, a native of Livermore, a State, remarkable to say, which did not cast a single vote in favor of the treaty, now lauded with such wide-world honor, apparently a Representative in the Fortieth Congress, said that "no man asked for the treaty."

William H. Seward, a citizen of the United States, occupying an official post of high trust, sued for it on behalf of the welfare of his country then and now and hereafter, and in the name of the whole people possibly, excepting the pent-up La Crosse croaker.

"That there was no sentiment in its favor." There was sufficient to carry the appropriation through the lower House of Congress, despite his machinations by a majority of seventy votes over those voting, and a clear majority of twenty-six over the combined strength of the unpatriotic nays and the dodgers.

Among the thirty States then represented twenty-five gave it the solid or majority support of their respective delegations voting.

That the treaty was "conducted in secrecy" was correct. All of them are. That it was "a surprise" as alleged by the gentleman from La Crosse follows as a logical sequence of his first proposition.

With the exception of the gentleman from La Crosse and forty-three others in the body of which he was a member, by the time a vote was reached on the ap-

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propriation, nearly sixteen months after, there was manifested a public sentiment which must have staggered the obtuse champion of international dishonor. In fact to such an extent that the gentleman from La Crosse found himself among the dodgers when the crisis was reached.

And now as we have heard from the gentleman from La Crosse, let us take a glance at the views of a gentleman of the United States of America, in the same Congress from Findlay, then representing a district and the State of Ohio in sentiment.

This gentleman, a journalist, a soldier, a legislator and a patriot in order "to ease the apprehensions" of the gentleman from La Crosse made, on the floor of the House, a proposition "to pay within twenty days after the assent of Congress was given to the purchase, to the Government \$10,000,000 in gold for the territory of Alaska in fee simple, leaving the right of eminent domain in the United States."

In regard to the allegations of worthlessness, sterility, barrenness and humidity, he had official reports "to show that they were wholly unsustained." He reminded the gentleman from Wisconsin that some of his pessimistic friends before him said that California was worthless, could not sustain a population, and now he was reiterating that stock argument. The Golden Commonwealth answered for herself. By accepting the treaty we caged the British Lion on the Pacific Coast, we crippled that great and grasping monopoly the Hudson Bay Company which controls the fur trade of North America, "enriching themselves and the British Government at the expense of what ought and justly does belong to the American people." California sends out millions, he said, of shining gold "every year and enormous clips of wool. Potatoes and flour were brought from Chili in 1852—California in 1867 feeds a large portion of the population of the Pacific Coast and Islands. The same with Oregon and Washington and will be with Alaska."

The persuasive Mungen gave a Demo-

cratic home thrust by exclaiming that "some gentlemen are extremely economical in everything except Negro Bureaus and military despotism over the Southern States. They can establish free schools for juvenile Africans of the South to the exclusion of the poor white orphans. They build colleges here (Washington) to educate the colored man, but they cannot give a few dollars for a territory with gigantic forests, rich in mineral resources, inexhaustible fisheries, beds of hard coal, and which will furnish homes and occupation, competence and wealth for millions of our people for ages to come."

The patriotic gentleman, continuing, said: "The Russian diplomats are far-seeing and shrewd. They know, as does every one who is a close observer of history, that the muscles of the British lion are weakening. His growl or roar is not so terrible as formerly. The government of that country is on the wane. Russia would be our firm ally in a war with England—England's star has passed its zenith. Russia will one day, and that at no distant period, control England's Asiatic possessions. When that happens, as a natural consequence the United States will take possession of the Bahama and all the British West India Islands, Canada will fall in our lap like a ripe apple. Spain's possessions on the continent must be ours. The two great powers on the earth will be Russia and the United States."

The observations of the gentleman of the United States from Findlay had their weight in completely obliterating the Alaskan horoscope of the gentleman from La Cross.

After years of progress in the world's affairs they have the force of prophecy.

There were other speeches of deep interest and weight in support of the masterly diplomatic achievement of William H. Seward in his official capacity and there were others very windy and noisy on the other side. Those which I have given were regarded at the time as fairly representing the pros and cons of the question.

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The call of the roll of the House of Representatives of the Fortieth Congress, arranged by States and classified according to the usual geographical sections, for the yeas and nays on H. R. 1096 appropriating \$7,200,000 for the purchase of Alaska, presents some singular revelations of the short-sightedness of men even of ability, who bubble up to the surface of public affairs.

We begin with New England and the State of Maine, which occupies the eastern as Alaska does the western extremity of the national jurisdiction.

The New England States, 5; yeas, 27; yeas, 17; nays, 7; not voting, 3.

Maine, Representatives, 5; nays, 4; not voting, 1.

New Hampshire, Representatives, 3; nays, 2; not voting, 1.

Vermont, Representatives, 3; yeas, 3.

Massachusetts, Representatives, 10; yeas, 9; nays, 1.

Rhode Island, Representatives, 2; yeas, 2.

Connecticut, Representatives, 4; yeas, 3; not voting, 1.

It will doubtless surprise most citizens at this day to contemplate such a progressive section with the heritage of Lexington and Ticonderoga casting anything but a solid affirmative vote on a question of national honor and destiny. It is to the credit of Massachusetts that her only negative vote was that of a well-known demagogue, B. F. Butler, while on the side of national expansion, were found such names as Samuel Hooper, Nathaniel P. Banks, George S. Boutwell, John D. Baldwin and Henry L. Dawes.

Vermont and "Little Rhody" cast their solid mites for their country's glory. Maine's favorite son, James G. Blaine, dodged the issue by not voting.

The Middle Atlantic States, 4; yeas, 61; yeas, 33; nays, 13; not voting, 15.

New York, Representatives, 31; yeas, 18; nays, 4; not voting, 9.

New Jersey, Representatives, 5; yeas, 2; nays, 1; not voting, 2.

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Pennsylvania, Representatives, 24; yeas, 12; nays, 8; not voting, 4.

Delaware, Representatives, 1; yeas, 1.

The foremost Commonwealth of the Union with her vast commercial interests stood well by the ship of State.

The foremost manufacturing Commonwealth with her interest in the expansion of markets for her abundant and varied metallurgical and other products of mechanical industry, with Illinois, cast the largest negative vote.

Little Delaware, like all her sister States, of Florida, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada and Oregon, which then had but one vote each, cast their mites on the side of the future greatness of their country.

The Middle Western States, 5; votes, 56; yeas, 25; nays, 18; not voting, 12; not recorded, 1.

Ohio, Representatives, 19; yeas, 10; nays, 5; not voting, 4.

Indiana, Representatives, 11; yeas, 5; nays, 3; not voting, 2; Schuyler Colfax, Speaker, not recorded.

Illinois, Representatives, 14; yeas, 3; nays, 8; not voting, 3.

Michigan, Representatives, 6; yeas, 4; not voting, 2.

Wisconsin, Representatives, 6; yeas, 3; nays, 2; not voting, 1.

It is remarkable that such great Commonwealths as the five enumerated should have been placed on record less creditably than their enterprise and public spirit in peace or war would warrant. The natural sense of their own welfare with the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes a source of unlimited occupation traffic and wealth for their own people would to the ordinary mind have suggested a unanimous vote for the acquisition as a measure of ordinary business judgment, and yet we find the bright example of such men as Robert C. Schenck, William Munger and James A. Garfield, of no effect in keeping off the adverse roll such names as Columbus Delano, of Ohio; later a Senator and Cabinet officer; Shelby M. Cullom, an aspirant for Presidential honors, and John A. Lo-

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gan, a hero of the War of the Rebellion and a candidate for Vice President of the United States, both of Illinois.

The Trans-Mississippi States, votes, 19; yeas, 7; nays, 4; not voting, 8.

Missouri, Representatives, 9; yeas, 2; nays, 2; not voting, 5.

Iowa, Representatives, 6; yeas, 1; nays, 2; not voting, 3.

Minnesota, Representatives, 2; yeas, 2.

Kansas, Representatives, 1; yeas, 1.

Nebraska, Representatives, 1; yeas, 1.

It does not seem possible that men of the public service and conceded statesmanship of James F. Wilson, President Grant's first choice for Secretary of State, and William B. Allison, a favorite for Presidential nomination, both of Iowa, and for many Congresses representing that advanced Commonwealth, both in the House of Representatives and Senate of the United States, and therefore men of affairs, should have cast their votes in opposition to the Russian cession. Their associate in the House then, and in the Senate later, and still later a Cabinet officer, William Windom, of Minnesota, recorded his name in the affirmative.

The Pacific States, 3; votes, 5; yeas, 5.

Nevada, Representatives, 1; yeas, 1.

California, Representatives, 3; yeas, 3.

Oregon, Representatives, 1; yeas, 1.

This solid phalanx, not numerous as to numbers, but potential in prestige, demonstrated that the Pacific Coast fully realized the national benefits to accrue from the cession.

The Southern Atlantic and Gulf States, 10; votes, 53; yeas, 9; not voting, 2; not elected, 42.

Maryland, Representatives, 5; yeas, 4; not voting, 1.

Virginia, 8 districts; unreconstructed.

North Carolina, 8 districts; Representatives, 5; yeas, 4; not voting, 1; not elected, 3.

South Carolina, 6 districts; unreconstructed.

Georgia, 7 districts; unreconstructed.

Florida, Representatives, 1; yeas 1.

Alabama, 7 districts; unreconstructed.

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Mississippi, 5 districts; unreconstructed.
Louisiana, 4 districts; unreconstructed.
Texas, 2 districts; unreconstructed.

The Southern Border States, 4; yeas, 23; yeas, 17; nays, 1; not voting, 4; not elected, 1.

West Virginia, Representatives, 3; yeas, 2; not voting, 1.

Kentucky, 9 districts; Representatives, 8; yeas, 6; nays, 1; not voting, 1; not elected, 1.

Tennessee, Representatives, 8; yeas, 7; not voting, 1.

Arkansas, Representatives, 3; yeas, 2; not voting, 1.

It has been the traditional policy of our fellow citizens of the South so far as history records, to favor territorial expansion. This laudable public sentiment may be the natural offspring of the patriotic spirit and local interest which moved them in our national wars with Spain in Florida and Mexico in Texas, and the peaceful acquisition of Louisiana by purchase from France. In the two former the security of the Southern border was menaced. In the latter the commercial autonomy and welfare of the vast region covered by the Mississippi and its tributaries was at stake.

The total vote cast for the bill appropriating \$7,200,000 for the purchase of Alaska was 200, of that number 113 were for the appropriation, namely: Republicans, 80; Democrats, 33. The number opposed to the appropriation was 43, namely: Republicans, 41; Democrats, 2. Those not voting, Republicans, 32; Democrats, 12. Of the 87 not recorded in the affirmative including the dodgers, 73 were Republicans and 14 were Democrats. It is not difficult to draw conclusions from such an object lesson. It is supposable in the light of precedent that had the unreconstructed States of the South been in position to vote, the great diplomatic achievement of William H. Seward, Secretary of State, in securing to the Union an acquisition imperial in extent and unexploited wealth would have been ratified by an even more overwhelming support

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of the Representatives of the sovereign people of the whole Union.

The following table will show at a glance the attitude of the States as well as of political parties toward this great event in the manifest destiny of the United States.

State.	Yeas.		Nays.		Not Voting		Total
	R.	D.	R.	D.	R.	D.	
Alabama,*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Arkansas,	2	..	..	..	1	..	3
California,	1	2	..	..	..	..	3
Connecticut,	1	2	..	..	..	1	4
Delaware,	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Florida,	..	1	..	..	..	..	1
Georgia,*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Illinois,	1	2	8	..	3	..	14
Indiana,	4	1	3	..	2	10	10
Iowa,	1	..	2	..	3	..	6
Kansas,	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Kentucky,	..	6	..	1	..	1	8
Louisiana, *	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Maine,	..	..	4	..	1	..	5
Maryland,	1	3	..	..	..	1	5
Massachusetts, ..	9	..	1	..	..	..	10
Michigan,	4	..	..	..	2	..	6
Minnesota,	2	..	..	..	..	..	2
Mississippi,*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Missouri,	2	..	2	..	5	..	9
Nebraska,	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Nevada,	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
New Hampshire, ..	..	..	2	..	1	..	3
New Jersey,	..	2	1	..	2	..	5
New York,	12	6	4	..	4	5	31
North Carolina, ..	4	..	..	..	1	..	5
Ohio,	9	1	4	1	4	..	19
Oregon,	1	..	..	..	..	..	1
Pennsylvania, ..	8	4	8	..	2	2	24
Rhode Island, ..	2	..	..	..	..	..	2
South Carolina,*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tennessee,	6	1	..	..	1	..	8
Texas, *	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vermont,	8	..	..	..	..	..	3
Virginia,*	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
West Virginia, ..	2	..	..	..	1	..	3
Wisconsin,	2	1	2	..	1	..	6
Total,	80	33	41	2	32	12	200

*Unreconstructed.

a Schuyler Colfax, Speaker, not recorded.

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Of the original thirteen States, ten Virginia, South Carolina and Georgia being unrepresented, cast yeas, 55; nays, 16; not voting, 19.

In the Senate, the treaty having been ratified by that body by the requisite two-thirds vote, in executive session acting in its constitutional advisory capacity with the Executive department of the Government, the discussion of the House bill was naturally very brief.

Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations, had charge of the treaty and made a speech in its support which was not only a most able and exhaustive effort, but conclusively disproved the allegation of Representative Washburn, of LaCrosse, Wisconsin, that nothing was known of the region except possibly by Mr. Washburn himself. Upon the receipt of the bill from the House, it was in the usual routine referred; reported back to the Senate with a substitute, went back to the House, was disagreed to; went to conference; was adjusted after mutual concessions and the conference report was concurred in by the Houses.

Thence it went to the President, by whom it was promptly approved. The money was then paid in the Treasury Department and the first chapter in the great international transaction closed. The wonder of the world seems destined to view what follows.

Alaskan Discovery.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER VII.

A Story of the Frigid Zone.

From the Amorous Pair on the
Euphrates to the Fierce War-
riors of the Amoor.

MID-OCEAN GRAVE OF VITUS BERING

The Croakers Refrain and a Statesman's Philosophy.

There were no questions of expediency nor of physical or strategic advantages to accrue from the Russian-American cession which had not received the closest scrutiny and investigation from William H. Seward before he entered into negotiations. And yet from the tempest of the contemporary croakers it might have been concluded that the treaty was the merest haphazard affair, entered into to strengthen the financial condition of the Russian exchequer and to gratify a certain degree of sentimentalism which had sprung up between the two nations.

It was even hinted that Mr. Seward, having become entangled in the meshes of "my policy," propounded by President Johnson, having thereby lost many of the political friendships of a lifetime, resorted to this bold stroke of diplomacy to divert public opinion and retire from public

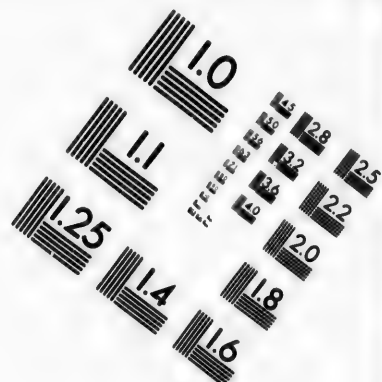
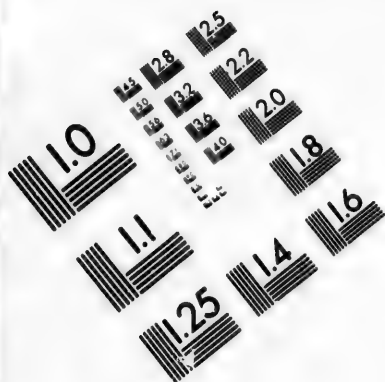
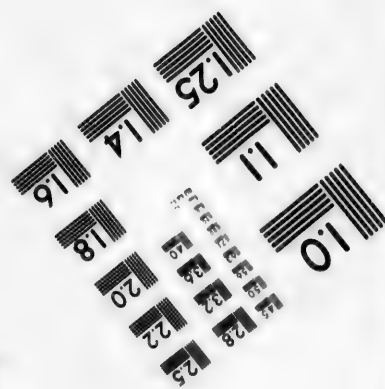
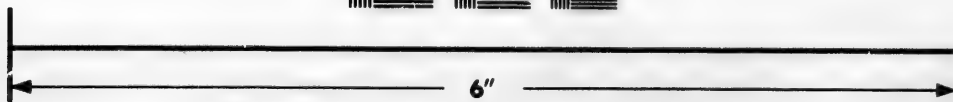
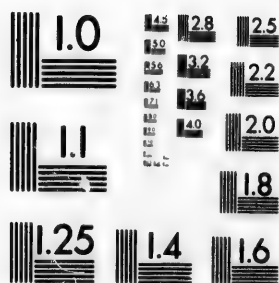


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station with a name foremost among the statesmen of his day.

There were croakers in the Fortieth Congress as there had been in Washington's day and ever since, and always will be. The "chief croaker" as he was termed in cabinet circles, at the time to which I refer, was General Cadwallader C. Washburn, who occupied a segment of that family circle in that Congress. The General, a man of ponderous build, had been in Grant's army and reached the grade of Major General, although no specifications are given as to why so high a rank. His burden of complaint, although he dodged the vote on the passage of the bill, H. R. 1096, was that the treaty had been negotiated in secret and was a surprise to him and to the whole country. "Me and the whole country," was about the size of the mighty General's measure of his relation to public affairs.

Secretary Seward, doubtless having in mind one of the Wisconsin Washburn's diatribes, one day remarked in his oft practical diplomatic irony: "Friend Washburn seems to think that treaties are negotiated with trumpets also, and shawms," laughingly adding, "and with loud instruments which make a noise."

Upon one occasion referring to the frigid girdle of mother earth's waist. Mr. Seward again demonstrated the profundity and detail of his research, at this time, ethnologically speaking with reference to Alaskan latitudes. He grew quite varied and eloquent in showing what these same regions in Europe and Asia had done for the human family and progress.

The accepted idea of the geneological ascent of man halts at the primitive pair supposed to have had their Edenic experiences in the Valley of the Euphrates, about 34 degrees north, in latitude with the north coast of Africa, Wilmington, North Carolina, and Los Angeles, California.

Another popularly accepted event, the racial distribution of man, took place from the grounded ark on Ararat's 17,000-

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foot summit on the line of latitude 40 degrees north, which passing through the Bay of Naples, takes in Philadelphia on the Atlantic and Cape Mendocino, California, on the Pacific littorals, in its encircling tour of the globe.

Accepting these vague narrations as every day facts, it will possibly shake such popular teachings to assert that Alaskan latitudes of the same mundane sphere have furnished the progenitors of some of the best and some of the fiercest types of the human family.

It was in the Siberian regions of the northeastern corner of Asia, along the Okhotsk Sea, and the Kamtchatkan peninsula, the eastern shore of that sea being our own Alaskan littoral, whence issued the hordes of warlike Mongols which, under Jenghis Khan Batu and Tamerlane reared an empire stretching from the Amoor to the Danube and the Arctic to the Indian Ocean.

The irruptions of the Scythians from the frigid regions of Europe and Asia long before the age of christendom, into milder zones, oft humbled and finally destroyed Rome herself.

The Norsemen of Scandinavia, the progenitors of men like Gustavus Vasa and Gustavus Adolphus wrested Normandy from France and placed one of their Dukes upon the throne of England. The same race sent its daring Vikings into the waters of North America five centuries before Columbus and sailed from Labrador to Florida. That no settlements were made signifies nothing. After Columbus over a century elapsed before a permanent foothold was made on the main land, even in an age of high civilization and the exploring fad of European monarchs. The Norsemen came in search of adventure. The Spaniards followed Columbus for rapine and accomplished nothing but ruin and crime wherever they stayed their blighting hand. It was the Anglo-Saxon who came for colonization and civilization.

A people living beyond the north wind was the theme of prose and poetry from

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the highest antiquity. The Epics of Homer descant upon inhabitants beyond the north wind, who enjoyed a mild climate, a sort of unconscious mythical reference to the far end of a northwest passage, and who experienced 1,000 years' duration of life.

The oracle of Delos wrought unto Greek legends the mythical beings of the icy North. Hecataeus of Abdera, a historian of the age of the conquering Alexander, wrote upon the Hyperboreans. Later Virgil and Horace, in the days of Pompey, Crassus and Caesar, spoke of the Hyperborei Campi.

These were Alaskan latitudes, a veritable land of romance exceeding twenty-nine centuries ago as it does now any other portion of this mundane sphere in thrilling interest.

The fabled glittering opulence of the orient aroused human avarice. The science of navigation had been sufficiently developed to understand the proximity of these Eastern treasures by a route less circuitous than had been marked out by the Portuguese pioneers of maritime discovery. The search became the objective point of the most costly maritime ventures.

Pardoning apparently irrelevant particulars but as parallel to the mysterious future of our Alaskan possessions, it may be mentioned that as early as 1585 the "Fellowship for the discovery of the northwest passage" was formed in London. The Anglo-Saxon greed of oriental riches was thus speedily aroused.

For nearly four centuries this combat with the forces of nature had been kept up through human skill, endurance and money, until Sir John Franklin and his companions in 1845 sailed down Peel and Victoria Straits, thus achieving the discovery of the "northwest passage."

The northeast passage, less frequently asserted, was attempted as early as 1553, but was only successfully reached in 1850 by an English expedition in search of Franklin, discovering Baring's Island, Prince Albert land, and the connecting strait named Prince of Wales, which

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completed the connection between the two great oceans.

A more successful accomplishment of the northeast passage was by the Nordenskjöld expedition of 1878-9, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, starting at the Yenesi August 6th, 1878, passing through Behring Straits July 18th, 1879, and reaching Japan September 2d, 1879.

It is one of the probabilities that the rush of population and the arts and industries of established civilization into Alaska in the immediate future will stimulate a spirit of exploration which may yet solve the mystery of a summer northwestern water communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.

It is known that there exists a water route starting at New York, sailing to Hudson Straits 20 degrees, a distance of about 1,400 miles, thence through Fox Channel to the Gulf of Boothia in latitude 70 degrees, thence into Victoria Strait 69 degrees, traversed by Sir John Franklin in 1845, thence through the broad channel which enters the Arctic Ocean at Cape Bathurst and thence 30 degrees in narrowing longitudes to Point Barrow, the American Arctic whaling and trading station.

The discovery and exploration of his distant Eastern possessions was a pet diversion of that great monarch, Peter the Great, of Russia. During his visit to England and Holland in 1697, in search of Western ideas of civilization, the maritime nations were still sadly tapping their revenues in the race for empire in undiscovered regions. A conspiracy of the Strelitz, the Imperial guard, the following year, compelled Peter's return to Moscow. Having completely wiped out this often seditious body of soldiery, beheading many with his own hand, he began his wonderful career of dynastic, military and civic reforms.

In 1702 he laid the foundation more completely of modern Russian greatness by the building of a new capital on the Neva, which bears his name. About 20 miles distant he reared great fortifications and a harbor at Cronstadt on an arm of

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the Gulf of Finland, which he called his look-out upon Europe.

In the midst of these toils of state and war his imperial curiosity was aroused by extended dominion along the distant shores of the Pacific. The Siberian possessions had been added to the Imperial dominion nearly two and a half centuries. The house of Ruric, which had reigned for over 700 years, then still sat upon the throne.

The new ruling house of Romanoff had added to the Empire the complete subjugation of the ranges of the Cossacks.

It was now the great Peter's wish to solve the geographical problem, then still a mystery, whether Asia and America were separated by an ocean or one mass of land, the same as Asia and Europe. With his customary energy he indicted with his own hand the instructions under which the explorations should be made. He then ordered his principal admiral to see them carried out.

In 1725 the death of the great Emperor supervened, but with the fidelity of her womanly heart, his Empress widow, Catherine, at once went on with his project. The expedition was organized. Vitus Bering, a Dane, was made its commander. In February of the same year Bering set forth on his land journey of thousands of miles for the other side of the Continent. Thence from the Kamtchatkan shore he sailed in 1728 in a little vessel of his own construction, which he called the Gabriel. His first happy discovery, St. Lawrence Island, stood in the very pathway to the unknown channel which separated the two hemispheres. Sailing northward he swept through the straits which now bear his name in 66 degrees and following the northeasterly trend of the coast to latitude 67 degrees 30 minutes, sailed within the Arctic circle. Satisfied that the two continents were separated, he returned. Having renewed his explorations the following year, he failed to add anything to his first attempt and returned to St. Petersburg in 1730, after an absence of five years.

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In 1732, during the reign of Anne, Duchess of Courland, who was placed upon the throne of the deposed Romanoff Peter II, Bering was sent forth a second time, on the same mission. It was the summer month of June, 1741, however, before he sailed with his two vessels into the mysterious depths of the unknown sea which now bears his name.

In 36 days he anchored under the shadow of Mount St. Elias, which stands an eternal landmark to navigators of the same American seas to-day. Shirikow, commanding the sister vessel, tempted by the fierce warfare of the elements, hastened homeward, and safely anchored in the calm waters of a Kamtchatkan cove. The brave Bering cast about at the mercy of the wild waves of a wintry sea, himself and crew afflicted with scurvy, after seventeen days found his tempest-tossed vessel cast upon an unknown island in that distant sea. Its brave commander succumbed to the exhaustion of overtried endurance and his soul took its flight from that mid-sea isle of desolation and death on the 8th day of December, in the year 1741.

Midway twixt Attu, the remotest Asiatic island of the Alutian chain under the jurisdiction of the United States and the shores of Kamtchatka in the famous latitude 54-40, will be seen by the student of geography, upon his chart of the Pacific a group of specks known from any other specks in the watery waste around, as the Comandorski Isles. The largest of these ruling like a mighty sentinel in the midst of the storm-driven seas which gave fame to Vitus Bering, became his grave, and to-day, bearing his name, stands a lasting monument to his courage, daring and skill. Around his island tomb lave the waters which still also bear his name, and to the northward the slender thread of water which unite the Pacific and the Arctic Oceans adds still more honors to his name and discoveries.

Alaskan Cartography.

y.



Mount St. Elias--The International Cornerstone, 141st Meridian, Alaska.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER VIII.

**Official Delineation of Our Sub-
arctic and Arctic Possessions,**

**Where Distances are Measured by
Degrees of Longitude and Lati-
tude Instead of by Miles.**

**A Scion of Nobility Looking for Indian
Haunts, Finds a Metropolis.**

**Figures for Gold Hunters to Stick in
Their Caps.**

When we contemplate the fatigues and dangers of water and land which beset the California pioneers of 1849-50 and contrast their toils, privations and sacrifices of health and life to disease, storm and tomahawk, with the humane efforts being made by the Government of the United States, and the projects in operation or proposed by the enterprising commercial spirit of the age for the convenience of the Alaskan and Klondike gold hunters of 1897-98, we have no difficulty in reaching the conclusion that civilization, wealth and humanity have advanced substantially in that large share of the earth's surface which belongs to the old "thirteen" of 1776 and the added galaxy of thirty-two commonwealths of

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1898, under the appellation, The United States of America.

As soon as the discovery of gold across the Alaskan border—longitude of 141 degrees west, on foreign soil became an assured realization in the golden evidences brought back by the pioneers, the Government at Washington sent out its agents in search of facts and data to meet any emergency of international relations or domestic administration which might arise.

The most realistic labors of the Government in reducing to a minimum, the mysteries of access to the golden region in that remote corner of this hemisphere has been accomplished by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey under the direction of W. W. Duffield, superintendent, verified by O. H. Tittmann, assistant in charge of the office, and H. G. O. Colby and E. D. Taussig, lieutenant commanders U. S. N., hydrographic inspectors in a most interesting and valuable series of charts.

The Englishman, cooped up in his eighty-by-ten isles, finds his head all awheel when he steps ashore in the United States and begins his struggle with some of the magnitudes upon which everything American from the hands of nature or man is scaled.

Not many years ago a party of brisk young beef-eaters, as the Trans-Atlantic steamer was approaching the American shores, informed the writer that "they would take it a great honor if he would join them in a day's lark around New York City to take a sight at the savage Indians." They also proffered all needed conveyances and a "neat lunch with beer, if they haave it," so that they might be out all day seeing these interesting sights. One of the party vouchsafed the information that he always took a deep interest in the American Indians. He intended when he got back to old England to write a book about America, and wished to introduce a chapter about the beastly savages which they write so much about in histories of the States.

When informed that it would take

three or four days by steam railroad to get a sight of even a "tame" Indian, they joined in chorus:

"You Americans get happy when you can guy an Englishman about America."

A few days later, on the streets of New York, one of these same beef-eaters calling himself the son of a British nobleman, which number not stated, supplemented his aboriginal stupidity on American affairs: "This, don't you know, is a blasted large country. This here city of New York," he added, with the patronizing manner of a flunkey, "is a big town. Been walking all day and not struck the end of it. Not as big as Lonnnon, but dumfounded big, all the same."

"You will find it big enough. But how about your lark out into the Indian country around New York?"

"Don't mention it. Don't mention it, my dear boy. That's done for, you know. Too much out of town, you see."

Although I wish to make no comparisons, it might almost be said that the ideas of the average citizen of the United States, with his familiarity with square miles of area by the millions and straight miles heavenward, interoceanward, gulfward or lakeward, by road, rail or river, by the thousands, all within American jurisdiction, can hardly realize the enormous extent of these Alaskan terrestrial magnitudes until he takes of them an "official" cartographic view.

Where we have counted intervening spaces by the old-fashioned methods of measurements laid down by statutes in feet, yards, rods, poles or perches and acres or miles in the sturdy old United States in new-born Alaska these elementary systems of superficial notation cease and degrees of longitude and degrees of latitude take their place, whether cut off in units of geographical or nautical lengths of 60 miles at sea or by act of Congress in statute lengths of 69½ miles on land.

In a genral way the superficial area of Alaska 577,390 square miles is equal to the combined domain of the German and Austro-Hungarian Empires and France.

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It has 26,000 miles of sea coast or nearly two and one-half times the sea coast of all the remaining portions of the United States.

It covers seventeen degrees of latitude from 54 degrees 40 minutes the southernmost point of Prince of Wales Island to about 71 degrees 22 minutes on the shores of the Polar Ocean, about 1,200 miles in a geodetic line due north. Its boundaries fringe the waters which roll in icy folds toward the northern axis of the earth, where all longitudes unite on the point of 90 degrees. The northern pole itself lies within 18 degrees and a fraction of Alaskan shores.

In westing it extends from longitude 130 degrees along Portland channel, one of the beautiful inland water ways of the coast, to the 56 degrees of latitude. Thence it follows the trend of the summits of the mountains ten marine leagues, or about 30 miles inland and parallel to the windings of the coast forming the line of demarcation between America and present British soils until it reaches that towering corner-stone of present American Empire in the northwestern corner of the Western hemisphere, Mount St. Elias, rearing 18,010 feet heavenward at longitude 141 degrees. Thence climbing northward over the curvature of the bosom of Mother Earth along this degree in the ascending number of latitude at 62 degrees, it crosses the White River tributary to the Yukon near the mouth of the Donjel. A little beyond 63 degrees the international line crosses the Ladue before it reaches the White River, which a short distance beyond empties its waters into the Yukon at those wonders of Nature, the Upper Ramparts.

At latitude 64 it crosses Sixty-mile Creek but fifty miles due east of which, between longitudes 139 and 140 we enter the heart of the region which now resounds through the world with the magic cry of gold and Klondike.

In tarrying here we find Dawson on the north bank of the Klondike River at its confluence with the Yukon. We also find

the gold-bearing tributary creeks all from the south as Too Much Gold, Gold Bottom, with its branches; Hunker and Last Chance, then Bear and Bonanza creeks with several minor tributaries.

Returning to the international longitude about 64-40, we cross Forty-Mile Creek, which enter the Yukon 14 miles east of the American line on British soil, with Forty-Mile on the south and and Cudahay on the north side of its junction. Thence northward the international line crosses the Yukon. At this point we find the river one-fourth mile wide, with a current in mid-stream two to three miles per hour.

Just beyond, on the American side at the mouth of Mission Creek, is Belle Isle.

In latitude 65 degrees the Tacondo River enters. From this point the Yukon cleaves the international line and pursues the remainder of its course through American territory, taking in a northeasterly direction Fort Yukon in the forks of the Yukon and the Porcupine rivers on the Arctic circle in latitude 66 degrees 31 minutes, and thence southwesterly until it empties its volume of sub-Arctic and Arctic drainage into Bering Sea. There falling back to the same latitude 63 at which it began under its geographical name at the junction of the Lewis and Pelly Rivers at the old ruined Hudson Bay Company, at Fort Selkirk.

Thence pursuing the international line it intersects the Porcupine River in latitude 67 degrees 30 minutes, at Rampart Ho, within the Arctic circle and four degrees east of its confluence with the Yukon. Thence intersecting Tanzi's Peak surmounting Davidson's Range 7,000 feet high in latitude 69 degrees, we debouch upon the shores of the Polar Ocean at Demarcation Point at 69-30, having traversed ten degrees of latitude.

In longitude from 130 degrees these vast possessions sweep westward to a limit defined as a point on the parallel of 65 degrees 30 minutes north at its intersection by the meridian which passes midway between the islands of Krusenstern or Inga-

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look and the islands of Ratmanoff or Noonarbook in the middle of Bering Straits between the continents of America and Asia and proceeds due north without limitation into the Frozen Ocean. Thus all lands, whether ice-capped and only fit for naming on nautical charts or geographical maps, coming within this limit to the point where longitudes 141 and 169 degrees at 90 degrees unite at the Northern Polar axis of the globe will be under the jurisdiction of the United States. Then beginning at the same initial point in Bering Straits midway between the Capes Prince Wales on the western and Nuni-amo on the eastern hemispheres crosses the Bering Sea in a nearly southwesterly course, passing midway between Cape Chibukak, the northwest point of the island of St. Lawrence and the southeast point of Cape Chonkotski, on the main land of Asia in Eastern Siberia to the meridian of 172 degrees longitude west, Thence continuing we cross the watery solitudes in a southwesterly direction, passing midway between the Island of Attu, the oupost of the oceanic insular jurisdiction of the United States and Copper Island of the Comandorski group, where the bones of Vitus Bering rest, in the Northern Pacific Ocean to the meridian of 10 degrees east longitude. This includes the Aleutian chain of islands which jut up in mid-ocean like stepping-stones from the western extremity of the Alaskan Peninsula through 25 degrees of longitude westward to within 10 degrees of the Russian Kamtchatkan coast of Asia, a distance of but 300 miles in the latitude 54 degrees.

These lines of treaty stipulation also have a geographical import in arranging between the two most powerful nations on the globe the scientific line of oceanic demarcation between the Western and the Eastern hemispheres, the American and Asiatic continents and the American and Russian possessions on the Pacific.

It is also interesting to note the following distances taken from the "Route Map" issued (September, 1897,) by the

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United States Coast and Geodetic Survey from Juneau, the starting point, for the Klondike gold regions, inland on American territory, in latitude about 58 degrees, longitude 134 west, to Porcupine River, also on American soil in latitude 67 at longitude 143 degrees.

Distances from Juneau to the mouth of Porcupine River at Fort Yukon in statute miles.

Via Chilkoot Pass—	
Juneau to Dyea,	118
Dyea to Chilkoot Pass,	13
Chilkoot Pass to head of Lake Labarge,	130

Total, 261

Via White Pass—	
Juneau to Skagway River,	114
Skagway River to White Pass,	18
White Pass to head of Lake Labarge,	129

Total, 261

In Chilkoot Pass near Lake Linderman and in White Pass between Summit and Bernard Lakes the mountain Summit line of demarcation between American and British territory at 59-40 latitude passes at an elevation of about 4,000 feet. From that point the infatuated wayfarer is on British soil until he passes Forty Mile Creek and reaches latitude about 64-40.

Juneau latitude 58-20 degrees, to head of Lake Labarge, by way of Chilkoot, 261

Juneau, latitude 58-20 degrees, to head of Lake Labarge, by way of White Pass, latitude 61 degrees, 261

Head of Lake Labarge, latitude 61 degrees, by way of that lake and Thirty Mile River and Lewis River, to Fort Selkirk, in ruins, at the junction of the Lewis and Pelly Rivers, about latitude 63 degrees, 224

[The current of the Lewis River is swift. Between Nordenskiöld and Tatchin Rivers from Five Fingers to Rink Rapids steamers can work through. About two miles below the rapids the current is about six miles an hour.

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Thence to Fort Selkirk the current is five miles per hour.]

Fort Selkirk to Dawson on the Yukon, 160

[Fort Selkirk to the Upper Ramparts at the mouth of White River there are numerous islands and gravel bars in the stream. The current is four miles an hour and depth over six feet.]

Juneau to Dawson, the business settlement of the Klondike region, by way of the Chilkoot or White Passes, 645

Dawson to Forty Mile Creek, 48

Forty Mile Creek to Belle Isle, 48

[In this stretch the international longitude of demarcation, 141 degrees, is crossed and we return to American soil.]

Belle Isle to Circle, 128

Circle to Fort Yukon, 83

Juneau to Fort Yukon, 948

Water routes from Seattle computed in statute miles.

By way of Chilkoot Pass—

Seattle to Dyea, 1118

Dyea to Dawson (Klondike), 527

Seattle to Dawson (via Chilkoot

Pass, 1642

By way of Stikine River in statute miles.

Seattle to Wrangel, 854

Wrangel to Telegraph Creek, 140

Telegraph Creek to head of Teslin

Lake, 227

Head of Teslin Lake to Dawson, . 525

Seattle to Dawson via Stikine

River, 1746

By way of St. Michael's and the Yukon River.

Ocean distances computed in statute miles.

San Francisco to Dutch Harbor, .. 2345

Seattle to Dutch Harbor, 1955

Dutch Harbor to St. Michael's, 750

St. Michael's to mouth of Yukon, .. 97

From San Francisco to mouth of

the Yukon 3192

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From Seattle to mouth of the Yu-	
kon,	2802
Yukon River distances, in statute miles.	
St. Michael's to Dawson,	1260
St. Michael's to Stewart River, ...	1321
St. Michael's to Fort Selkirk,	1425
St. Michael's to Five Finger Rapids, ..	1491
St. Michael's to Tesla River,	1612
St. Michael's to White Horse Rap-	
ids,	1697

These rapids in Fifty Mile River are situated about thirteen miles south of Lake Labarge on the Chilkoot Pass route back to Dyea and Juneau. The Fifty Mile River connects Lake Labarge and Lake Marsh and a group of lakes beyond, southward, which extend to the inland, foot of Chilkoot and White Passes, draining toward the Yukon, while Skagway and Dyea Rivers, on the western slopes of these same passes, drain into Dyea Inlet and thence through Lynn Canal and its outlets into the Pacific Ocean. The White Horse Rapids three-eighths of a mile in length are dangerous for boats. The total fall in the canyon is 32 feet. The current through the canyon is about fifteen miles an hour. The canyon itself is a mile long and 100 feet wide. The mountains attain elevations in this region of 6,400 feet.

A light draft river boat of good power, it is mentioned officially, should be able to navigate the Yukon as far as White Horse Rapids, a distance of 1,600 miles.

The fingerboards of science and survey have now pointed to the curious world and the impatient actors in the thrilling scenes the way to the golden vales of the Yukon. Upon the returns of the golden harvest will rest the occupation of the vast regions which have had no existence in the affairs of this busy sphere of to-day except in lines from the expert hand of the engineer and draughtsman.

HOW ALASKA LOOKS

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER IX.

Some Interesting Studies in Alaskan Physical Geography.

A Network of Waterways on a Gigantic Scale.

Saltwater Thoroughfares and Fresh Water Lines of Travel and Trade.

An Aquatic Commonwealth in Embryo.

There is a novelty and newness in the creations of nature, that gives an originality and interest to the physical geography of Alaska, which we do not find in any other region of the earth.

Its configuration in itself is a surprise. Its enormous area strikes us with astonishment. It is over twice as large as Texas, which would yield to the Union six States as big as New York or Pennsylvania.

The singularity of its contour impresses us with interest. Its immense compact central body occupies the uttermost upper western corner of the Northern Continent of the New World. Its dimensions are more than imperial, being over twice the size of the dual Empire of Austria and Hungary and also more than double the

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surface of the Empire of Germany, including Prussia and its twenty-five associated kingdoms, principalities and duchies. It is double the combined area of the united sub-Arctic kingdoms of Norway and Sweden, with a population of 6,800,000 inhabitants (more than our own New York) and situated in the same latitude just around the northern cap of the globe, whose capital, Stockholm, on the parallel of 60 degrees north occupies the same latitude as the southern boundary of Western Alaska.

It is three times larger than California, eight times larger than Illinois and ten times larger than Ohio.

The icy waters of the Polar Sea sweep in rolling stretches of surf along the sandy beaches which look out upon the northern hub of the earth. On its western boundaries it divides honors with the Arctic Ocean and the Bering Sea, and extends the felicitations of modern progress to effete Asia, the mother of continents, across the inter-ocean tidal thread of Bering Strait.

On its south, against a shore broken by mountain peninsulas and safeguarded by archipelagoes, roll up from the Japan current of the Kuro Siwo, the gulf stream of the Pacific, the tempering waves of the Alaskan Gulf.

On the east, beyond the longitude of demarcation, numbered 141 degrees west on the web of meridians and parallels woven by science about the globe, it sweeps away toward the waters of the Atlantic on the other side of the vast frozen region noted on contemporary maps as British possessions.

In one direction, toward the southeast, it reaches out its giant arms through 500 miles of narrow strip of auriferous mountain main land fringed by scores of islands bathed by the warming waters of the Alaskan Gulf, until suddenly arrested on the confines of a strange land which severs it from contiguity to the governing power to which it owes allegiance.

In the other direction, toward the southwest, it reaches nearly 2,200 miles

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across the Pacific in a chain of peninsulas, submarine mountains and towering island peaks by the hundreds, until halted in mid-ocean by treaty stipulations, almost in sight of the rugged shores of the Kamtchatkan regions of the mighty Russian Empire in Asia.

The ignominious compromise, so characterized by American statesmen when accepted and since, of the northern boundary of the United States at 49 degrees north, instead of carrying to a finish the earlier campaign cry of "54-40 or fight," necessitates a voyage of about 500 miles from Dixon Entrance along the coast of British Columbia, before again entering United States jurisdiction in the straits of Fuca in the American State of Washington.

The physical features of this land, which now occupies so much of the public attention on account of its unexploited, but known treasures of gold and other resources of commercial value, are not only most remarkable, but in many respects are among the natural wonders of the world.

The main land of southeastern Alaska, which occupies the shore strip as we have shown 500 by 30 miles, is made up of an almost unbroken chain of mountains from 3,000 to 5,000 feet high, at points, like Fairweather, rising to 15,292 feet and St. Elias 18,010 feet, which completely hems in the mapped British possessions.

These immense heights are broken here and there by valleys and limited areas of level land covered by dense forests of spruce, hemlock and cedar trees and an almost impenetrable undergrowth.

The same general configuration, with some exceptions, continues from St. Elias to the western extremity of the Alaskan Peninsula at Issamotski Strait.

The inland regions of Alaska are composed of vast planes and low hills, with no conspicuous mountains stretching away to the Bering and Polar Seas.

A most novel physical feature of the region is the immense number of islands lying off the coast and stretching nearly

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across the Pacific Ocean, some as large as the smaller Commonwealths of the Union. In Southeastern Alaska Prince of Wales Island is larger than Connecticut; Baranoff as large as Delaware; Admiralty as large as Rhode Island, with Chichagof, Kupreanof, Kuiu, Revillagigedo almost as large.

These Alaskan islands, from a few acres to hundreds of square miles in area, number seven hundred aggregately, constituting in length the furthestest outstretched and in area the largest archipelago in the world.

Another peculiarity is the innumerable deep sea channels which occupy the watery interstices of this succession of archipelagoes and penetrate far into the mainland. The most prominent of these are Portland Canal, Behm Canal, Clarence Strait, Sumner's Strait, Chatham Strait, Frederick Sound, Stephen's Passage, all of which, also having ocean outlets, converge inland at Lynn Canal. The town of Juneau on the right is reached by Stephen's Passage, while Dyea, Chilkat and Chilkoot, the base of supplies and starting point of the cross-cut route inland to the navigable waters of the Upper Yukon for Klondike and Alaskan gold fields, occupy the head of Lynn Canal.

At the entrance to Lynn Canal, to the left, extends Icy Strait, leading up to Glacier Bay, one of the wonders of Alaska, and through Cross Sound into Fairweather ground of the Pacific Ocean to Western Alaska.

On the main ocean coast are a number of bays, sounds and entrances and other indentations, the largest being Iphigenia Bay, off Prince of Wales Island, through which the waters of Sumner Strait reach the ocean; Christian Sound, which also receives Chatham Strait down between Admiralty and Baranoff. Then Sitka Sound on Baranoff Islands, on the shores of which stands Sitka, the little capital of this imperial region. Thence northward to Cross Sound, the upper end of the inside passages on the coast, bounded by

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glacial and mountain wonders. Then Yakutat and Disenchantment Bays, which penetrate the Titanic mountain nest with St. Elias and the vast ice sea of Malaspina on the north and Fairweather's mountain giants, morainal deposits, buried forests and snow masses on the south.

Then we reach Prince William's Sound, which receives the drainage of much of the famous Copper River regions. Then Cooks Inlet, which gathers up the waters of the auriferous regions of the Sushitna River. Then Helekoff Strait on the south and Bristol Bay on the north side of the butt end of the Alaska Peninsula, larger than the peninsula end of Florida.

Thus leaving the Gulf of Alaska by a single stride across into Bering Sea, we reach Kuskokwim Bay, which receives the waters of that great stream. Just beyond is Etolin Strat, with Nunivak Island like a solitary ocean sentinel, guarding the approach to the deltoid mouth of the mighty Yukon.

And thence to Norton Sound with its little island of St. Michael, miles beyond, affording the only safe harborage for the fleets of steamers and other craft for the auriferous regions of the Upper Yukon.

Thence we proceed through the narrow ocean portals of Bering Strait, with Big Diomedé Island in mid-current, like a stepping-stone between the two continents of America and Asia.

Thence passing within the regions of icebergs and floes, the home of the right whale, we enter Kotzebue Sound, a safe anchorage for whaling fleets which resort thither. Rounding Point Hope and Cape Lisburne and climbing over the cap of the earth, sighting Icy Cape, the terror of the Arctic whalers, we reach the northern tip of the continent at Point Barrow, the American refuge station of whale ships and the northernmost point where the flag of the Republic waves in territorial jurisdiction.

Under the caption of Alaskan Possibilities, I referred to the six grand geographical divisions of the territory. It is another feature of the region that each of

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these sections has its distinctive river system.

The numerous marine waterways, straits, canals, passages, bays, sounds and estuaries along the coast, mostly of great depth, receive from the mainland the waters of a labyrinthine network of rivers. Some of them are of sufficient depth to float for many miles steamers of ocean and river draft. All of them to the very base of the lofty mountains can be utilized by the baidarra, the mooseskin canoe and other water conveyances of the natives.

Were it not for these conveniences of nature the mountainous configuration of the country, combined with the sphagnum or moss-covered boggy surface of the lower lands, would render travel extremely difficult and in some parts impracticable.

The Stikine River, long famous for the gold taken from its banks across the British border, is the first stream of importance we encounter in ascending the Alaskan coast from the south. Although about 250 miles in length its outlet near Wrangel Island and but 30 miles of its course lie in the United States jurisdiction. In the spring it is navigable, but the rest of the year only for native boats. One branch, the north fork, about 40 miles in length, rises on the east side of Bald Mountain, almost side by side with the headwaters of the Yukon, which runs many hundreds of miles of meandering course before it reaches the sea.

The Taku, which empties its waters into Glacier Arm of Stephen's passage, is only fit for native boats beyond the frontier.

The Lynn Canal, which is an ocean inland water course, receives at its head several small streams on the east, the Shkagway with a mountain 7,400 on its eastern shore and is the route of travel for gold hunters from Shkagway, by the White Pass, to the chain of inland lakes and water courses, notably Fifty-Mile River, which with the Teslin, makes the Lewis River one of the two main head-



Unalaska, Aleutian Islands, Alaska.

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water rivers which unite to make the Yukon.

Nearby is the Dyea River, a small stream which also empties into the Dyea Inlet, and from the town of the same name is available for native boats to the foot of Chilkoot Pass, which also debouches on the transmountain side into the same system of mountain lakes and outlets which enter the Yukon through the Lewis.

A short distance to the west is Chilkat Inlet and River, the third of the three streams which spread out fanlike at the head of Lynn Canal. This river, from Klukwaar, approaches the Chilkat Pass and on the other side, through Lake Arkell and Tahkheena River, unites in Fifty-Mile River with the two other transmountain routes to Lewis River and the Yukon to the Klondike region.

After a stretch of six degrees of ocean longitude in latitude 60-20 north we reach the delta of the famous Copper River, 30 miles in length and 5 miles in width.

The Copper and the Chittyna, its main tributary, are streams of leading rank in the river system of Western Alaska, although of no value for navigation by larger craft and only with difficulty by the native canoes.

The Copper or Akna River, according to Lieutenant Henry T. Allen, Second United States Cavalry, one of its explorers, makes a descent of 3,100 feet in 330 miles. Its chief trading town and starting point of expeditions is Nuchek, on Hinchinbrook Island, 432 miles west of Sitka, and 50 miles west of its mouth. The region is exceedingly mountainous and shows positive signs of large mineral wealth, especially in copper.

From Nuchek to the entrance of the Chittyna River on the left is a distance of 161 miles and to Lake Susitna, a reservoir of the Stara River, tributary of the Copper, from the sea, is 403 miles.

From the Midmoosky Creek, entering on the right of Chittyna River, 11 miles from the mouth of the latter, is the start-

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ing point of trail by way of Lake Suslota, 241 miles to Nuchek, a distance of 403 miles by river.

The Copper and the Tanana, a tributary of the Yukon, have their fountain springs almost side by side and closely parallel each other for many miles until they divide and find their outlets, the one in the Gulf of Alaska, south, and the other in the Bering Sea, north of the Alaskan Peninsula.

The Sushitna finds its outlet in Cook Inlet and forms a convenient inland water course for communication by trail with the Tanana on the north and the Kuskokwim on the west.

On the western shore of Cook Inlet, opposite the opening into the ocean and west of the active volcano of Augustine runs a small water course by which a short portage is made to Lake Iliamna, a sheet of water 80 by 25 miles or about one-third the size of Lake Ontario, and thence by the Kvichak outlet into Bristol Bay.

As an object lesson of the value of these easy portages by water and trail from one river system to another it should be said that by the Iliamna Lake, a distance of not over 100 miles, mostly by boat, saves at least 800 miles of sea voyage around the Peninsula of Alaska. This striking instance of the almost incomprehensible value of the network of Alaskan rivers and communicating lakes is the same as if a natural water channel existed across the head of the Florida Peninsula from the Atlantic to the Gulf of Mexico.

The Nushagak, 150 miles long, which enters the same bay, has communication by lakes and rivers with the Kuskokwim.

The Kuskokwim, the second largest river of Alaska, after penetrating a little-explored region for 600 miles, takes its rise in the same cluster of glaciated peaks which also contribute waters to the sources of the Sushitna, whose outlets in the ocean are 400 miles apart.

The course of the stream is said to be across a vast plateau. There is a portage route between this stream near the

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trading station of Kalmakvolsky and the Yukon. This portion of the valley has good soil and a fine growth of forest trees, shrubs and herbs.

There are also indications of commercial qualities of cinnabar, antimony and silver-bearing quartz. The region also abounds in beaver, marten and foxes and the rivers in salmon, upon which the natives subsist.

About 300 miles beyond the Kuskokwim the deltoid mouth of the mighty Yukon, the great river of Alaska, and one of the great rivers of the world, empties its immense volume of drainage into the Norton Sound estuary of Bering Sea.

The importance of this commanding artery of our Alaskan dominion will be well worthy of a place by itself in our stirring story of Wonderland Alaska.

The Arctic division largely consisting of frozen moors and low hills has a number of streams useful only for draining the interior hillsides of their summer meltings of snow and ice and afford facilities for summer canoe or winter sled transportation for the hardy Eskimo natives and explorers of the sealed volume of nature inland.

The Colville, which empties into the Polar Sea, about 600 miles west of the mouth of the Mackenzie and the Ikpihpung, are the principal north flowing rivers while the Selawick, Noatak and Kowak empty into the Kotzebue estuary of the Arctic Sea toward the west.

There are numerous smaller streams which constitute an important share in the summer drainage of that Polar basin of snow and ice.

A WONDER OF RIVERS

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER X.

Yukon's Mighty Flood Through Golden Lands and a Thousand Isles.

The Father of Sub-Arctic Waters.

It Drains Territory of Two Nations and Takes Its Way Through Two Terres- trial Zones.

If we were to board a steamer at any of the great sea ports of our Pacific Coast and proceed northwesterly through the beautiful labyrinth of inland waters which lie off the mainland north of Cape Flattery, a little beyond the 48th parallel, we would find ourselves entering the mountain and glacial glories of Lynn Canal in Southeastern Alaska.

There would lie before us a choice of two routes penetrating the coast. Availing ourselves of Chilkoot on the starboard instead of Chelkat inlet on the port side after passing a settlement named Haines, we soon enter Dyea Inlet. Again the waters divide, but leaving Shkagway on the right, the good ship plows her way up the narrowing waters until moored at the head of navigation at Dyea town, a distance of 15 miles.

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Thence leaving our steamer we literally "paddle our own canoe," the mainstay of travel and traffic in Alaska, for a distance of 10 miles to the head of canoe navigation. Thence we take to the locomotion of last resort a pair of stout limbs, with pack, staff and rifle, and press still onward two and one-third miles to the mouth of a minor stream named Nourse.

We have now reached the portals of a defile in the Kotush Mountain named Perrier by Schwatka, after an erudite member of the French Geographical Society.

In this pass we cross the ten marine league line of international demarcation between the United States mainland and British territory. Mounting to an elevation of 4,240 feet and traversing a distance of eleven miles in crossing the divide, we descend on the eastern side by rapid declivities to a plateau. About six-tenths of a mile, to be scientifically correct, off the pathway of the pass, nestled in the frozen elevations, lie the remains of a volcanic vent in the mountain mass now filled with ice and snow, which received from Schwatka the name Crater Lake.

At this point, within 40 miles of ocean navigation, we stand upon the glacial masses which nurture the infant Yukon.

Let us now return to the bounding billows and instead of putting our prow to the starboard bear it hard to the port. Passing through Icy Strait and Cross Sound we enter the broad Pacific. Taking a southwesterly course 28 degrees of narrowing meridians and 3 of parallels, nearly 1,500 statute miles, we pass through the narrow waters of Isanatski Strait at the western extremity of the Alaskan Peninsula in Bering Sea, and thence shaping our course a trifle west of north round Cape Romanzof about 470 miles, and about 150 miles more to the northeasterly brings us off the deltoid mouth of the Father of sub-Arctic waters.

Thus we complete an oceanward semi-circle, a distance of about 2,120 miles, corresponding to a similar semi-circle

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on the mainland from Crater Lake to the mouth of the Yukon, a distance of 2,044 miles.

In a line from Crater Lake, the source, to Aphoon, mouth of the Yukon, as the sea gull flies, the distance would be 28 meridians of longitude on the parallel of 60 degrees, making about 1,000 miles just one-half the course of the river or of the ocean, with the Alaskan Peninsula in the way.

It is another singular fact that the Yukon, rising near the parallel of 60 degrees, debouches in Bering Sea near the parallel of 62, after making a crescent-like sweep of 784 miles on British and 1,260 miles on American territory.

This mighty river, ranking among the longest in the world, drains about 600,000 square miles and discharges through its many mouths one-third more water into Bering Sea every hour than does the Mississippi into the Gulf of Mexico.

The Yukon district under British-Canadian jurisdiction comprises 192,000 square miles, of which 152,768 are within the watershed of the Yukon. On the eastern side of the divide lies the vast basin of the Mackenzie River dipping into the Polar Ocean.

We will now return to Perrier Pass and descend the mighty fluvial highway, noting as we proceed some of its more important physical characteristics.

The pass itself is covered with snow, bounded by glaciers and fringed with juniper and dwarfed spruce. At the summit of the pass upwards of four thousand feet, a trail to the north descends rapidly several hundred feet to one of those numerous mountain expanses of water for which Alaska is celebrated.

This bowl of snow and water, about one hundred acres in extent, surrounded by bare granite hills has all the characteristics of an extinct crater.

Far beneath its icy surface the gurgling waters make their way amid the snow masses in the mountain gorge, through which the Yukon trail finds its way, to

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canoe navigation upon the bosom of tributary lakes and streams at its foot.

The accounts of the early explorers refer to the immense snow arches, beneath which these fountain waters find an outlet, frequently collapsing and being carried off in the rushing stream beneath, leaving walls 20 to 25 feet high on either side.

In the warmer seasons the curlew and the swallow, the nimble mountain goat and the brown bear may be seen in the midst of this wild grandeur of mountain and water.

After a distance of twelve miles these leaping currents spread out upon the placid bosom of Lake Lindeman about 10 by $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in area, named after a distinguished member of the Bremen Geographical Society.

On its waters may be seen drifting with the current the green-winged teal, gulls, Arctic Tern and Harlequin Duck, on its shores the grouse, the bear, the caribou and mountain goat peacefully feeding.

The hundred lakes of Alaska, from mere drops of water to sea-like areas, which are among the attractions of mountain and plateau beauty, are here met in all their placid grandeur. There are no less than ten of these sheets of water connected by three distinct systems of outlets which finally unite in Thirty-Mile Creek and join the Lewis River. This stream by Schwatka was accepted as the continuation of the Yukon beyond the Pelly River confluence to the headwaters in the Kotush Mountain. Although the Pelly is of greater length it is of less volume than the Lewis.

The Crater Lake outlet, after leaving Lake Lindeman on the Chilkoot Pass route, thence enters by a small stream, Lake Bennett, a river-like body of water with a large arm on the north, extending northeast 25 miles and then turns southeast into Tagish Lake, which also receives the waters of a chain of lakes which connect with the trans-mountain outlet of White Pass from Shkagway on Dyea Inlet.

This entire group of lakes empties through Lake Marsh bounded on either side by elevations of 5,500 to 6,500 feet. The next outlet, in which the dangerous White Horse Rapids of Fifty-Mile River appear widens into Lake Labarge, 30 miles long, and thence through Thirty-Mile River, 40 miles into the Lewis or Upper Yukon.

The total fall in the White Horse Canyon, five-eighth mile long and 100 feet wide, according to the United State Coast Survey charts, is 32 feet, with a current of 15 miles an hour.

Before reaching Lake Labarge Fifty-Mile River receives Tahkheena River from the west the outlet of Lake Arkell, 2,700 feet above the sea, 35 by 5 miles, which is the outlet of the Chilkoot Pass route from the Chilkoot River and arm of the same Lynn Canal.

On the east Thirty-Mile River receives the waters of Teslin River and Lake, the latter 70 by 5 miles, with a short portage from the Nakina branch of the Taku River from Juneau, forming that route for gold hunters to the Lewis portion of the Yukon.

After leaving the mouth of Big Salmon River from the west the Yukon-Lewis arm continues to Fort Selkirk through the Five Fingers and Rink Rapids (named after Henry Rink, an authority on Greenland) through which steamers can warp against a six mile and thence onward against a five-mile current.

We now reach the junction of the Pelly River, named after an English early governor of the Hudson Bay Company, which originates in the same group of mountains which give rise to the Stikine. Between the two there is an easy portage. And yet the latter, flowing south, enters the ocean in longitude 132 degrees and the former by a circuitous route in longitude 164 fully 1,300 miles apart.

In the forks of these two rivers stands Fort Selkirk, in former days the chief trading point of the Hudson Bay Company in the northwestern territory, west of the Rocky Mountains.

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This post was established about 1848 and was destroyed by the coast Indians in 1852.

From Fort Selkirk the Yukon proper flows northwest until it enters the Arctic Circle and thence southwest into Bering Sea.

Beyond Fort Selkirk the Yukon takes a current of four miles an hour with a depth of six feet and many islands until it reaches the White, a muddy stream of some dimensions, from the south. This portion of the Yukon, known as the Upper Ramparts narrows to 250 yards in width with great depth.

Below this point the stream widens from 1 to 10 and sometimes 20 miles from bank to bank and contains numerous islands. All the greater affluents from the west now have their rise on American soil.

About 10 miles below the mouth of the White the Stewart River enters from the east. We now approach the famous Klondike region, about 125 miles below Fort Selkirk, passing Ogilvie, a small station opposite the mouth of Sixty-Mile Creek, entering from the west.

Not quite 40 miles lower down we reach the mouth of the Klondike River, which enters from the east. On the north side of its mouth stands Dawson, the chief town of the region and the end of the long, toilsome, wearying and dangerous travels of the "gold winners."

Leaving this interesting locality for a more detailed account in its proper place in this story of "Our Alaskan Wonderland and Klondike Neighbor," we push on down the Yukon, which now takes a most circuitous route, reaching Forty-Mile and Cudhay, one on either side of the mouth of Forty-Mile Creek, another region rich in gold, mostly in Alaskan limits.

In view of the prospects of valuable gold deposits along Forty-Mile Creek, which enters the Yukon from the west about 50 miles below Dawson, in the Klondike, giving that stream immediate importance in the affairs of that region of gold, Ogilvie, an English surveyor,

made observations to determine where that stream crossed the 141 meridian and marked the point about 23 miles from its mouth.

The Forty-Mile Creek, after a meandering course of 50 miles on American territory, divides into two forks, the south rising on the eastern slopes of the Ketchumstock Hills, on the western shed of which the Tanana, tributary of the Yukon, takes its rise.

About 30 miles below we return to the jurisdiction of the United States at the 141 meridian, the line of international demarcation agreed upon between England and Russia in 1825, and named to the United States in the cession by the latter power.

The point of intersection has been located by engineers of both countries and marked.

The first American station, Belle Isle, lies at the mouth of Mission Creek, 10 miles northwest of the international crossing, and about 5 miles cross country west of the line.

The Boundary Butte rears its prominent cap just beyond on the American side.

About 10 miles above Circle the next river station on the western bank, the Yukon spreads to lake-like width and is dotted with a thousand beautiful islets for 85 miles northwest and thence 140 miles south of Fort Yukon to the Lower Ramparts, a total distance of 225 miles.

The Thousand Isles of the Yukon occupy an arc in the course of the great river which carries it to a point where it follows the Arctic Circle for a distance of 30 miles. The northern shores lie within the Polar zone on the one side and the southern shores in the Temperate zone on the other, of the North American Continent.

The Thousand Isles of the St. Lawrence, one of the favorite resorts of the summer tourists from "the States," is duplicated, only on a larger scale, on our own Yukon.

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After a descent of 85 miles from Circle in the midst of this stretch of islands the main stream receives the Porcupine River, whose great flood, beginning in Fish Lake and swelled by many tributaries, crosses the frontier line about 150 miles to the eastward of its mouth.

In the forks of the Yukon and the Porcupine stands Fort Yukon, which in its day enjoyed great prominence in the primitive affairs of that distant interior region.

The post was established in 1848 by the English Hudson Bay Company. In 1869, two years after the transfer of jurisdiction, an astronomical observation under the auspices of the United States demonstrated that the station was on American soil. The Hudson Bay Company officers, upon being notified of the fact and directed to vacate, ascended the Porcupine and located themselves anew at Rampart House. In 1890 the observations of the United States Coast Survey showed that the British station was still 20 miles within American jurisdiction.

In 1891 the Hudson Bay Company officers advanced 20 miles still further up the Porcupine and established the present Rampart House station on the north shore, just below the mouth of a stream entering from the south.

The Upper and the Lower Ramparts of the Porcupine on American territory about 80 miles apart, present a majestic stretch of Polar zone scenery.

An interesting feature in connection with the locality is that the site of the fort stands just north of the line which divides the Arctic from the North temperate zones of the earth. It is about 1,055 miles from the sea, 490 below Fort Selkirk in the forks of the Pelly and Yukon Lewis Rivers and 989 miles below Crater Lake, its source.

After leaving Fort Yukon and passing the Lower Ramparts about 64 miles in latitude 64.07, longitude 152.08 west, the river receives the flow of the Tanana, its largest tributary, from the east. At its mouth stands Tanana and a short distance below St. James' Mission, under

the auspices of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

The Tanana "River of the Mountains" enters the main stream 30 miles below the Ramparts, 684 miles from the sea, 250 miles in length and as much more through headwaters to its source in the divides which also contribute the fountain waters of the White and the Copper Rivers.

About 17 miles below, on the right bank, is the village of Tuklukyet. A short distance farther on are the Palisades, a beautiful stretch of scenery. It is also the starting point of several trails. Still descending, we pass Nowikakat, another of the river trading post.

Thence, after a stretch almost due south, receiving a number of important tributaries and passing Nulato, on the west bank, and other villages, we reach Anvik, one of the United States river weather stations.

Another stretch south and the great river makes a sharp curve to the west, until it reaches the bluffs of Andreafski, where the magnificent mountains which lined the great stream from its source so many hundreds of miles begin to disappear and are lost completely below Kusilvak, 20 miles further on at the diverging point of the five larger and a labyrinth of smaller outlets of the river, 100 miles from the sea.

The monotonous alluvial level of the delta, 70 miles on the sea front, here begins.

The river now distributes its waters through a web of tidal outlets, channels and marshes and finally reaches the open waters of the lake-like sea of Bering, hemmed in by the Aleutian chain.

The immense amount of silt borne down by the reddish current is shown by the great area of shallow water and muddy bottom of the vast delta. The coast survey charts make a line of sounding 100 miles off the shore from Cape Dyer to St. Michael, constantly ranging from 9 to 18 feet, and as far out in the open sea as St. Lawrence Island, 160 miles, due west not to exceed 210 feet and would not average half that depth.

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This entire upper portion of the Bering Sea between the Yukon delta to the Gulf of Anadir, on the Eastern Siberia coast of Asia opposite and north to Bering Strait will hardly show a greater average depth.

The vast deposits which have been carried down from the interior, and the volcanic and glacial action of this same quarter of the globe is but part of the sublime handiwork of nature, which has been going on from the remote solitude of ages, in the growth of the northwestern corner of the North American continent.

The Yukon to Alaska is what the Mississippi and Missouri are to the United States; the Rhine and the Danube to Central and Southern Europe; the Volga and the Dneiper to Russia; the Yang-tse-Kiang and Hoangho to China; the Nile, the Congo and the Niger to Africa; the Amazon and Parana to South America; and numerous lesser fluvial arteries to the States, principalities and nations through which they take their course. With these greatest rivers the Yukon also takes its rank in length and leads them all in volumes of water and majestic grandeur of scenery.

The inconceivable amount of water which the river discharges would be even greater particularly in the absence of any material evaporation were not the meltings of glacier fronts and snows of the lower elevations and the torrents of the summer rains percolating down through cracks, crevices and canyons of the mighty mountain masses partially held in check by the Arctic tundra mosses which grow in such profusion on the freezing earth beneath.

The general and physical features of the river are peculiarly interesting. The facilities of navigation of any water highway being equal to its shallowest point, the Yukon from its mouth to its larger headwaters almost its entire distance is available for boats drawing three and one half feet of water. Six feet is claimed to Fort Selkirk.

These boats, flat-bottomed and designed to meet the requirements of the

river, will carry a maximum of 500 tons. Even in high water the river is not suitable for ocean-going craft. Owing to the shallowness of the waters outside and inside of the mouth and inland the great lines of ocean steamers discharge their passengers and freight for transshipment to river craft at St. Michael, a harbor on the island of that name 73 miles beyond the Aphoon mouth in the gridiron of outlets of the river.

The closed season of the river covers about eight months, the summer or open season extending from June 1st to September 15th. During the long winter when the sun lies beneath the horizon for twenty hours out of the twenty-four the river does not remain helpless and useless in the icy embrace of the blizzard King Boreas, but is utilized for sled journeys by the natives and traders from village to village along the river's course.

In the brief summer the temperature sometimes reaching almost a subtropical maximum, maintains particularly in July and August a mean as delightful as we experience in our Adirondacks and White mountains and the sublime elevated regions of the Garden of the Gods, the Yellow Stone and higher plateaus of the Rockies nearer home.

The banks of the river are then carpeted with the beautiful Arctic tundra, a moss and lichen like growth which gives the appearance of a velvet turf of bronze green. Also beautiful flowers of every shade and delicacy of fragrance indigenous to sub-Arctic temperature.

Amid the scant foliage of low trees sit birds of all sizes, plumage and song. The indigenous animals seen at different points along its lengthened shores are the grizzly and the brown bears, moose, caribou, musk ox, mountain sheep, wild goat, rabbits, Arctic hares, musk rat and the "fretful" porcupine. On the bosom of its current are seen geese, ducks and other aquatic fowl and beneath dwell the toothsome salmon, grayling and trout.

The unlucky moose herds making their

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way across the river are often ruthlessly slaughtered by a fusillade from a passing steamer.

And still higher in the eternal solitudes of nature's icy laboratories measured by miles in elevation may be seen the ever-replenished, ever-descending and never-dissolving glaciers.

Thus from the deck of the craft of man may be seen from Alaskan waters at the same time eternal fires from the bowels of the earth and the sea, the strange glories of the land and the resplendency of ice-capped mountains.

Nor is it all a peaceful survey of nature. The ubiquitous and irrepressible mosquito vying with its insect kindred of New Jersey is just as tenacious of its attentions to the uncovered superficies of animal life. Not only man, but the cattle of the field and animals in mountain haunts are the objects of these insectivorous assaults supplemented by the persistent attentions of gnats and the vicious gouging effect of the nippers of a variety of horse-fly, which renders "a kingdom for" a mosquito net not an extravagance.

The archaeological interest of the great river is as great as its more recent relations to mundane affairs. On its banks, especially near its headwaters, the femur and teeth of the mastodon have been found to remind the geologist that the shores of the Yukon in the mysterious ages of the miocene and pliocene periods of nature's building of the planet we inhabit must have been the haunt and home of that extinct monster race of the elephant family.

The scenery of the entire river for over two thousand miles is of unexampled grandeur. It begins in the glacier of Orater Lake in the Kotush and continues in the Upper Ramparts just below Fort Selkirk. In this weird region it passes through the heart of the golden lands of Alaska and Kondike, the intricate channels of the Thousand Isles and by historic Fort Yukon until fully seven hundred miles away in an ever widening lake-like and narrowing chasm-like channel

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Salmon Fishing Station, Shumagin Islands, Alaska.

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and with an ever accelerating and abating current it passes seaward through the portals of the Lower Ramparts until it is lost in the mighty waters of the Pacific Ocean.

The Kwichpak, which was the earlier name of the Yukon, as it approached the sea, has been abandoned. The entire length from source to mouth is generally known as the Yukon, although the head-water tributary above the mouth of the Pelly is still mapped as the Lewis and retains its local name.

In 1833 the Fort St. Michael, which controls the trade of the river, was built on the island of the same name, one of a small cluster on the south side of Norton Sound, about 73 miles northeast of the Aphoon mouth of the river.

In 1835, with a view to the extension of trade up the Yukon, the Russians made an exploration of the mouth of the river.

A few years later, their operations having extended considerable distance, a fort named Nulata, between the 64th and 65th parallels, was built, but it was almost immediately abandoned and burned by the natives. In 1841 the Russians made another attempt to occupy the post, but the natives proving less docile than their kindred on the sea coast, after a troublesome occupation of ten years were again dispossessed. In 1859 it was rebuilt and held.

In 1843 the occupation of the river was extended to Nowikakat, just below the Palisades, in latitude 65 degrees. In 1847 the confluence of the Yukon and the Porcupine, an important strategic point was occupied by the construction of Fort Yukon, afterwards abandoned. Since that date explorations have kept pace with the advance of trade until the entire main river is well known.

Mountain Monarchs.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XI.

"Fighting" John Rodgers on Our Alaskan Possessions.

The Himalayas, Alps, Andes, and Mountains of the Moon Thrown in the Shade.

A Submarine Range of Mountains Mightier Than the Masses of the Himalayas.

An Archipelago Greater Than Imperial Japan.--Ancient Venice Outdone.

At 3 P. M., December 17th, 1870, the launch of the United States steam frigate Colorado, flagship of the Asiatic fleet, dropped away from the landing at the quay of Shanghai. The admiral of the fleet, "Fighting" John Rodgers, was on board. I was his guest. Owing to her draught, the flagship lay at anchor outside the bar at Woosung, about twelve miles below the chief seaport of the celestial Empire. The wind was howling, sleety and cold. The launch plowed its way toward the sea with the spray flying, hustling, hissing, haste of such sprightly little craft.

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The Colorado was an old-timer. Frowning through the port holes of her black wooden walls were 45 savage-looking guns of large calibre. She was 4,700 tons displacement. The United States Navy then could boast of but two ships her equal and but two surpassing her a trifle in displacement, carrying respectively but 39 and 12 guns. And these were pushed along at a snail's pace by a single screw. This constituted the entire list of warships of the United States Navy of the first class at that time.

It seems almost ridiculous to contemplate the public admiration bestowed upon these antiquated "tubs" and then bring our minds up to the standard of our present sea-going armored battleships, with displacements ranging from 6,315 to 11,525 tons, and racing the mighty deep at a velocity from 15 to 17.04 knots an hour. And back of them fleets of armored cruisers and the whole list of modern war craft by the scores from monitors down to surface and submarine torpedo boats propelled with the speed of the wind at 18 to 30 knots, notating many more statute miles an hour.

The Admiral, who had been in the navy since 1828, was as tough as the knarled live oak ribs of his war-like craft. He was a Marylander, blonde and handsome, even after 42 years buffeting the storms and terrors of every sea. He was of the same stuff which, in the days of the Revolution and 1812, humbled England on her chosen element.

After a distinguished career as a subaltern, in 1862, commanding three gunboats on the James River, he silenced the Confederate batteries up to the casemated Fort Darling, and failed to reach Richmond, he said, owing to sunken vessels in the channel.

The fight at Fort Darling was a fine exhibition of American heroism, both by the defenders of the fort and by the gunners of the fleet. The Galena, the flagship of Rodgers, was hit 129 times by the Confederate shot, and only withdrew after every shot and shell in her magazines had been fired and two-thirds

of her men were killed or wounded. This was a sample of the daring which gave John Rodgers the sobriquet, "Fighting John" of the American Navy. He also kept the Weehawken head on in a terrific gale, he said, "to test the sea-going qualities of monitors," when every officer on board urged him to make for the breakwater of the Delaware. In 1863 he fought a naval duel with the terrible Confederate ironclad ram Atlanta in Warsaw Sound, Georgia. In fifteen minutes after firing five shots from the Weehawken the Confederate struck her colors. The old "salt" of the Weehawken said he was "just settling in his own mind the merits of the new 15-inch gun."

He also sailed the monitor Monadnock around "the horn" to San Francisco. On his way he witnessed the bombardment of Valparaiso by the Spanish fleet.

The Admiral laughed heartily over this experience. He remarked: "I could have taken my monitor Monadnock, battered and beaten as she was, by the rough weather off the Horn, and in one hour have whipped the whole Spanish fleet. Their shots were wild. They could not hit a barn at close range."

During my delightful sojourn on the flagship my companionable hero-host invited me to an inspection of one of the vessels of his fleet. There were eight in all. The Alaska, the one selected, was an old fashion screw vessel of 2,400 tons displacement carrying 12 guns. She recalled to his mind after our return to the flagship the accession of the Alaskan territories to our national domain.

"I feel quite at home," said he, "in China and Kamtchatkan and our own Alaskan Bering and Pacific Seas. In the fifties, for three years, with the United States steamer John Hancock, I had charge of surveying and exploring expeditions in these waters and therefore ought to know something about them."

"I recall," added the Admiral, "my feelings when the conclusion of the Russian treaty was announced. A few days later I was then in command of the Boston Navy Yard, I penned a letter of

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congratulation to Secretary Seward. I remember saying "that the amount paid was a mere bagatelle. * * * The southern part of Russian America is the same as New England. * * * We get shores like Norway, which supply Europe with timber. * * * The shores are warmer than we have in the same latitude on the Atlantic side, and so on."

Years after, frequently meeting the admiral, hale and hearty, on the avenues of Washington, he often reverted to the value and interest of our Alaskan possessions being more and more appreciated every year.

It will doubtless cause surprise when it is said that San Francisco, in longitude 122-30 west, is still east of the center of the jurisdiction of the United States from east to west, which begins at Deer Island, in Passamaquoddy Bay, in Maine, in longitude 66 west, and ends beyond the island of Attu, the western outpost of the Aleutian chain, in longitude 173 east in the North Pacific Ocean.

The coast line of Alaska without the smaller indentations is 4,000 miles long. It is bordered by three seas, the Pacific, Bering and Arctic. From its southern boundary to Point Barrow on the Polar sea (54-40 to 71-22 degrees north latitude) it is about 1,200 statute miles long in a straight line, or as far as from the southern point of Florida to the northern point of Maine, or farther than from London to St. Petersburg. From its eastern to its western longitudes of international demarcation it is (130 W. to 170 degrees E.) over 3,000 statute miles, or 300 miles further than from Eastport, Me., to Cape Flattery, Washington from Lisbon, Portugal to the Ural Mountains on the Asiatic confines of Russia.

Its southeastern mainland, a strip of territory thirty marine leagues wide from the southern point of Prince of Wales Island to Mount St. Elias, a distance of about 400 miles, under American jurisdiction, the summits of the coast range mountains forming the line of international division, rises to great altitudes,

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ranging from 6,000 to 9,500 feet. These constitute a mighty rampart of natural boundary against the British possessions on the east.

The waters of this same coast from Dixon Entrance to Cross Sound are dotted with upwards of 500 islands, known aggregately as the Alexander Archipelago, with an area almost as great as the Imperial Archipelago of Japan. Any one of its larger islands, Prince of Wales, Kupcanof, Baranof, Chichagof, Admiralty, Wrangel Revillagigedo, Etolin, is as great in area as famed Sicily or Corsica, and hundreds are larger than the Island of Malta, in the Mediterranean. In all 1,100.

This picturesque sweep of marine beauty is interwoven with a network of innumerable navigable water courses with the physical capabilities of an imperial Venice of the remote west, compared with which the ancient and powerful Italian republic was the merest speck.

We can readily imagine how with the occupation of these insular sites by an enterprising population, these highways of water will be the municipal thoroughfares of fleet steamers of travel instead of railroads and trolleys, boats of burthen instead of drays and freight trains and gay gondolas in place of the pleasure vehicles of men of leisure and ladies of fashion on their social rounds. Indeed an American Venetian commonwealth in the distant Alaskan waters of the North Pacific.

The Alaskan mountain system is reared upon a scale as magnificent as the grandest of the mountain monarchs of the earth's crust.

Its three important ranges grouped under the Coast, the Rocky and the Alaskan, vie in mass and altitude with the immense groups of the Himalayas in the heart of Asia, the Alps in the heart of Europe, the Moon on the continent of Africa, the Rockies in the heart of North America and the Andes along the littoral of South America.

Mount St. Gothard, the nucleus of the

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Swiss Alpine mountain system, covered with perpetual snow, presents an array of peaks rising to its greatest elevation in Mount Blanc, 15,732 feet above the sea, with glaciers and lakes embosomed in mountains and drained by torrent streams. It extends from Cape Finisterre to the Black Sea, 1,800 miles.

The Himalayas, "the abode of snow" in the native tongue, the most elevated above the sea on the globe, with a length of 1,500 miles from the Yangtse to the Indus, with a mean elevation double the Alps, presents forty peaks exceeding 20,000 feet and culminates in Mount Dhawalaghiri at 28,000 feet.

The mountains of the Moon, which stretch from Cape Guardafui 1,800 miles in the Zanzibar and Mozambique regions of the African continent, culminate in Kil-Madjaaro at 19,000 feet.

The Andes, the most remarkable of the physical features of the globe, find their fitting culmination and termination in our Alaskan Wonderland.

Beginning as they do in the precipitous and rugged heights of Cape Horn, on the isle of Terra del Fuego, they pursue their course of grandeur the entire length of the continent of South America, a distance of 4,500 miles. Then, under different names, following the slender cord, the Isthmus of Darien, which unites the two great Americas, branch out to form the lofty sub-tropical regions of Central America, and traversing Mexico, penetrate the United States, crossing its entire area, and thence through British Columbia enter Alaska.

In their course of 130 degrees latitude, or about 9,000 statute miles, in Terra del Fuego, the land of fire, they reach altitudes from 2,000 to 7,000 feet; in Patagonia 8,000; in Chili, in the volcano of Artuco, 16,000, culminating in the mighty porphyritic mass of Nevada of Aconagua at 24,000 (which I gazed at in wonder from Valparaiso). The Peruvian Andes reach 11,000 feet. The Ecuadorian Andes at Quito, 9,600 feet, are surrounded by the most magnificent

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group of volcanoes in the world, among them the famed Cotopaxi, 19,000 feet with its masses of flames thrown heavenward 3,000 feet, and mighty Chimborazo, 21,425 feet.

In the Sierras of Mexico we find lofty Popocatepetl pouring forth its volumes of lava and flames when nature demands.

In the United States, in Arizona we find Mt. San Francisco, 13,000 feet; in California, Mt. Whitney, 15,000; in Nevada, Mt. Wheeler, 13,000; in Oregon, Mt. Hood, 11,225; in Washington, Mt. Rainier, 14,444; in Idaho, Hyndman Peak, 12,073; in Wyoming, Grand Teton, 14,150; in Utah, Mt. Emmons, 13,694; in New Mexico, Cerro Blanco, 14,269; in Colorado, Blanca Peak, 14,464; in Montana, Mt. Douglass, 11,300, and to cap the climax of this array of American mountain grandeur we ascend to the Coast Range of our Alaskan Wonderland, rising to 18,010 at that sublime cornerstone of international jurisdiction between American empire and British occupation, Mount St. Elias.

Yet from this altitude we still gaze heavenward at the glistening eternal snow-clad summit of Mount Logan at 19,500 feet with Fairweather 14,500 feet and Vancouver, Hubbard and Pinta rearing their lofty summits around.

Nature, not yet ended in the grandeur of Alaskan mountain tops, overhangs the current of the Copper River with a group in which are Mounts Samborn, 13,000 feet; Drum, 13,300, and higher still Mounts Wrangel and Black at 17,500 each.

From the lower elevation of the Jade Mountains, 3,500 feet, overlooking Kotzebue Sound and the Tanana hills the northern lands drop away among unnamed peaks of 3,000 to 5,000 feet to the low, sandy shores of the Polar Sea.

And with all these wondrous works of nature in Wonderland Alaska the Coast range of California and the Rocky Mountains unite and sweep away from the continental mass across the Kenai and down the Alaskan Peninsula to sink be-

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neath the waters of the Pacific. In these mysterious depths they now form a defined submarine chain of mountains, extending through 34 degrees of longitude of ocean or 1,700 miles Asiaward from the main land at the extreme tip of the Alaskan Peninsula. This elongated tongue of land itself juts into the ocean 9 degrees of longitude of 450 miles before the submarine range begins.

This distinct and connected submarine range receives the name of the Aleutian Islands above the waters and the submerged foundation lost beneath the waves—the Pacific Ocean. Where they rise above the surface they form five mid-ocean archipelagoes with a thousand lofty summits known as the Fox, Four Mountains, Andreano, Rat and Near Islands, the latter the largest of the Attu, forming the last outpost of the jurisdiction of the United States toward Asia.

These peaks rise in the Fox Islands to 8,900 and Andreanof Islands to 5,000 feet, almost sheer height above the sea from mighty submarine masses in defined mountain measurements below the waters. To the southward of the Fox Islands within 120 miles, the mighty ocean shows soundings of 3,620 fathoms (21,720 feet) or four miles from the bed of the ocean to the skyward summits of the Alaskan Aleutian submarine mountain chain.

The Shishaldin volcano on the Unimak Island, the first of the Fox group in the Aleutian submarine mountain chain, protrudes 8,952 feet above the waves of the Pacific. The measured depths of its foundations, 120 miles distant, below the waves by the fathom line 3,620, or 21,720 statute feet, makes from its submarine base on the bed of the great deep a recognizable altitude of 30,672 feet or about six miles of clear elevation or 3,600 feet greater height than the Himalayas.

Nor does this marvelous work of the Master Architect of the Universe end here. On this same island Pogrumnoi volcano lifts its rugged head 5,523 feet above the surface of the sea at its base.

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If exposed to view from the south we would then contemplate a mountain mass 27,243 feet in height.

And still further penetrating the mighty Pacific we find going Asiaward in the Fox Island group M. kushin rising 5421 feet out of the waves. In the Islands of the Four Mountains Vesivido 8,000, Yunaska 2,864, Amukta 3,738, Sequam 2,092. In the Andreanof the Great Sitkin 5,033 and Tonaga 6,975. In the Rat Islands, Little Sitkin 3,585 and Kyaska 3,700, with Attu with its five peaks of the Near Island surrounded by sheer depths of 2,463 fathoms from the south, 1,447 on the north, 4,007 on the southwest and 2,237 to the east, all to be multiplied by six feet to a fathom before touching the bottom.

And away to the northwest of the Fox Islands 3 degrees distant in the Bering Sea, the caps of the famous Pribilof Islands, St. Paul, with its three peaks 633 feet, Walrus, Otter and St. George jutting out of the shallow bed of the Bering Sea from 200 to 500 feet, the resort of the valuable fur seal, otter and walrus.

The Aleutian submarine range making a crescent shape, holds in the hollow of its encircling crest the waters of Bering Sea and forms an American and Russian lake 973x2760 statute miles compared with which the Mediterranean, 250x2,500 statute miles is a pond.

The great Russian and American explorers and scientists of this vast region of physical marvels have united in admiring its unfolding details and so will their successors with even greater enthusiasm. No one can conceive, even after a personal inspection as the writer enjoys, of all the greatest mountain masses of the earth except one, anything grander than the land summits of Alaska. But greater than all are the scores of Alaskan peaks rising to sheer heights as lofty as 8,000 feet out of the indigo waters of the Pacific. These find no equal in any ocean of this terrestrial sphere.

PLUTONIC FIRES.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XII.

**Mountain Stacks Send Forth
Smoke, and Explosive Vapors
From Vulcan's Workshop.**

**The Accouchement of the Sea and
an Island Rises.**

**Thermal Springs, Hot Marshes and
Fountains of Health.**

**A Poison Island, Boiling Pools and a
Lake of Sulphur.**

**A Congenial Retreat Under the American
Flag for satan and his Imps.**

One of the stock arguments of the opponents of the Russian American purchase in the Fortieth Congress was that it was a land of volcanoes, glaciers, eternal snows, boiling springs and other physical ailments of Mother Earth. The good things which lay upon that portion of her nurturing bosom were never even surmised.

I well remember upon one occasion one of the negative orators persistently berated Russian America and the Secretary of State with fiery zeal to the utmost limit of his sparse vocabulary.

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The great Secretary always derived a fund of amusement from the density of ignorance or malevolence manifested by this line of statesmen (?).

"There is usefulness in volcanoes, glaciers, thermal springs," said he one day, "and other wonderful things in nature. They have even an economic value if, besides relieving Mother Earth of abnormal conditions, for aught else than to excite and keep alive the wonderment of feeble mortals. The flaming cone of Vesuvius, the glaciers of the Alps, the geysers of Iceland [the wonders of the Yellowstone were then not so well known], the mud springs of the Caspian, the Swiss lakes are to the localities in which they are situated a valued inheritance. Who can tell? It may be so in Alaska. Our people are fond of wonderful things. Why not have them at home?"

This was a quizzical view of the question. The Secretary knew from his numerous avenues of information that the resources of land and sea with exploitation would eventually be worth a hundred times more than the purchase money.

It must not be overlooked, however, as I have already demonstrated, that the inceptive cause of the negotiation which dated far back of Secretary Seward's era was international friendship on the part of Russia and territorial possession and commercial ascendancy on the part of the United States on the western shores of the American Continent and on the Pacific Ocean unobstructedly toward the Continent of Asia.

It may be interesting to preface the Alaskan volcano bone of contention in the Fortieth Congress by a few generalities on those terrible agents of mundane internal relief, to show that our eminent hero had not cornered the market on those and other physical terrestrial monstrosities as alleged "on the floor of the National House of Representatives."

Our Alaskan and Aleutian possessions have never been the exclusive centre of the volcanic ulceration of the earth's

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bosom. These surface sores are found in every zone of our mundane sphere. They exist in every great ocean, their eternal fires having a logical proximity to the waters of the great deep. The Pacific Ocean has a perfect circuit of them, beginning in our own Alaskan and Hawaiian possessions. Taking in its Asiatic shores and islands of Oceanica they extend up the Andean elevations of the Western Hemisphere back to Alaska.

There is method in their terrific madness when fully aroused. If it were not for these great vents of relief to the pent up intestinal disturbances of the earth we might some fine day find our alluring globe blown into a billion fragments through the realms of space.

Agreeing with our diplomatic hero, even volcanoes have their uses. They have been known to exist since the most remote periods of human history and are distributed and operated by immutable physical laws. In fact, the entire face of this sphere is pock-pitted with their extinct remains.

It is true that our Alaskan wonderland has a goodly share of them as it has of many other wonders of which I have yet to speak in justice to our marvellous acquisition from our "great and good friend," Alexander II, Emperor of all the Russias.

There is contemporary Russian authority that there have existed since their occupation of the region no less than sixty active volcanoes. The known extinct volcanoes would justify this number within the range of Slavic knowledge and a great many more previous to that period of recorded history. On the official authority of Lyman E. Knapp, Governor of Alaska in 1891, at least twelve have been in operation since the acquisition of the territory by the United States, five of which were seen "in a high state of activity," by that functionary with his own eyes.

For this reason I am disposed to accept that official's narration.

As has been shown, the bold elevations which form the coast line of Alaska and

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sweep away oceanward through the Alaskan Peninsula and the under and over oceanic masses of the Aleutian Isles are a continuation of the Andes and the Rockies, and find their own continuation in the Commandorski Isles toward Kamtschatka and in the Kurile and Japanese archipelagos toward the Chinese mainland of the double continent of Asia and Europe.

The Alaskan and Aleutian volcanic vents constitute the most numerous in a given area on the globe, but unlike their counterparts elsewhere the seismic disturbances so prevalent in Japan, the Mediterranean and Andean centres are not known in Alaskan lands or waters.

Penetrating the mainland of Alaska, between longitude 150-154 degrees west, latitudes 59-61 degrees north, is one of the many indentations of the coast known as Cook Inlet. Along the western margin extends a range of lofty peaks of the rugged terminal masses of the Rockies and the coast range, which continues down the southeastern margin of the Alaskan Peninsula and tower above the ocean billows from the mighty submarine foundations of the Aleutian range.

The sight from the navigable waters of Cook Inlet on the west and towering over the narrow strip between the inlet and Lake Clark inland is the ever active volcanic summit of Redoubt Mountain, the first in the line of these wondrous exhibitions of nature. About forty miles southwest is Iliamna, lifting 12,000 feet over the waters of Cook Inlet, sending forth from its frowning summit ashes, smoke and sulphurous fumes. Still southwestward, about sixty miles, rising out of the blending waters of Cook Inlet and Shelikoff Strait, is Mount Augustine, whose intermittent eruptive force in 1883-4 sent forth ashes which fell on the decks of vessels hundreds of miles at sea.

About 380 miles seaward, down the Alaskan Peninsula, on the southeastern shore, rears the majestic Pavlof, near Belkopsky Bay. Over 4,000 feet in

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American Tourists at Alaska Glacier Front.

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height, it can be approached to its very base at Bear and Pavlof Bays by vessels.

From the bay at intervals of a half minute can be seen issuing puffs of dense volumes of black smoke from the fissure on the craggy mountain side about 1,000 feet below its pointed summit, as if fed from the everlasting fires of the mighty enginry of nature in the seething bowels of the earth. After a fall of snow a blackened mountain side to the waters edge at its base is the visible signs of the volcano's terrible work.

Across Isanatski Bay and Strait, which separate the uttermost point of Alaska Peninsula from the first island link in the Aleutian chain, lies the cluster of smoking and steaming peaks which forms wonderful Unimak.

A beautiful cone of most perfect proportions, rising to the dizzy height of 8,958 feet above the sea, whose rolling waters dash and foam at its very base, Shishaldin, is the queen of the plutonic family circle of Unimak. Its wintry mantle of snow glistens upon the azure canopy against which its symmetrical outlines are seen, while from the rugged orifice at its pointed apex issues smoke, steam and ashes. Less than forty miles distant, near the western end of famed Unimak, stands Pogrumanoi, a lofty cone of 5,523 feet above the sea, at its base, whose fires once so active lie banked and silently awaiting a fresh awakening from its present lethargy.

About sixty miles onward and southwestward of fiery Unimak, rises savage Akutan on the island of the same name, violently puffing at intervals of but a few seconds its dense black and white smoke from the monster-like mouth at its top.

And still forty miles farther on, as we penetrate the mysterious blank of waters, we come to Makushim, another of these mysterious vents of steam and white smoke on the Island of Unalaska, which can be seen fifty miles at sea.

Due west of Unalaska 100 miles, jutting out of the blue waters of Bering Sea from a measured depth of 725 to 1,263 fathoms,

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or six times that in feet depth of water, is the terrible Bogoslof. This infant island of the mighty deep rising 600 feet above the billowy surface, emits columns of smoke and steam with alarming force from innumerable fissures in the surface, of broken rocks and friable matter. And the still more wonderful record of this mysterious islet is that the accouchement of the sea has brought this smoking steaming, still uplifting progeny from the bed of Bering's waters within the recent recollection of man.

On the Island of Unmak, forty miles south, stands silent Tulik and Vsevidof, 8,000 feet in height, whose former activity now remains quiescent.

Farther pursuing our ocean course southwestward about sixty miles on the easternmost of the Islands of Four Mountains, which stretch still southwestward toward the Pacific limit of United States jurisdiction 18 degrees away, rises the Island of Kagamil. A low mountain near the water's edge, it sends forth from numerous openings jets of sulphurous steam and mephitic gases. So powerful, it is recorded, are these noxious emissions that the exploring steamer *Elsie* in 1874 was compelled to stand off shore to avoid fatal consequences. So feared is this seat, where in truth his Satanic Majesty might reign in suitable mundane surroundings, that navigators very rarely visit it.

At this point the Alaskan and Aleutian volcanoes disappear to rise again in vapor from sub-marine volcanoes south of Nipon of the Japan Islands 2,500 miles to the southwest or from the summits of Mauna Loa on our latest territorial possessions, the isles of Hawaii, 2,250 miles to the south.

It is an interesting feature of the Hawaiian acquisition that the ties of political strategic and economic interests between the mid-Pacific archipelago and the United States were not alone a logical outgrowth, but their seems to be a possible relationship of their volcanic energies. The famous Kilanea is known

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to have eruptive periods of about nine years. The scientific conclusion of this is that it requires that space of time to fill the crater to a depth of 400 to 500 feet before an outbreak can occur. In 1868 there happened an interval of eighteen years which led to the inference that the intervening eruption was sub-marine.

Scientific inquiry will doubtless now draw its own conclusions upon the relation and tendency of the volcanic energies which are so numerous and constant on the islands and shores of the Pacific Ocean.

How instructive to contemplate, these mighty upheaving subterranean fires standing for countless ages like sentinels over the solitudes of the Polar, the Bering and the Pacific Seas, now dawning into commercial and industrial activity and importance under the Aegis of the young and stalwart Republic of the West.

Of the other volcanic vents to which it may be interesting to refer in connection with our own wondrous equipment in Alaska, Aleutia and Hawaii, the first of commanding interest which we encounter, is Popocatepetl, in the Sierras of Mexico, lifting its flames heavenward to great height and pouring out its overflowing lava in streams when active.

Then comes in our southward course terrific Cosequina, in Nicaragua. This energetic outlet at brief intervals fills the air with ashes and darkness for days for a radius of thirty-five miles. Its dread deposits cover an area of 270 geographical miles in diameter a depth of ten feet, and its ashes have been carried in the upper air currents as far as Jamaica, 700 miles distant.

Then, southward, comes the mountain giants, Chimborazo and Cotopaxi, of the Ecuadorean cluster, the latter by the dynamic force of its subterranean gases hurling 200-ton blocks of stone nine miles. Then the famed Antuco, of the Chilian system, sending stones thirty-six miles away, and Aconcaqua, of the same system, rising proudly in view from Valparaiso. Then, in mid-Pacific, the famed

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Sioa, of the Friendly Isles, Tofua, in the Moluccas, which, since the earliest knowledge of the Western navigators of those mysterious seas never ceased to illumine their dangerous way. Thence, northward, to the seismic focus of the Japan Island, thence westward to the Mud volcanoes, 400 feet in height, on the lower Indus and westward the same upheavals, over 1,000 square miles, on the banks of the Caspian.

We now reach enchanting Stromboli, in the Mediterranean, by which I have sailed both by day and by night. This marvelous handiwork of nature has lighted with its eternal fires within the range of human knowledge the galleys of ancient Phoenecia, Greece, Rome and Carthage as it does the ocean greyhounds of to-day. It is the barometer of the sturdy fishermen of the Lipari and adjacent isles, the condition of its eternal fires indicating the changes from calm to storm. In this vicinity are enthroned those volcanic Titans, Vesuvius, in Naples, and Etna in Sicily, the former the resort of thousands of American tourists, besides its uses in nature a godsend peculiarly to the inhabitants of those sterile shores, as I can testify from personal knowledge of both. Then to the dust-distributing Arctic monster, Skaptar Jokull, of Iceland, which, with favoring winds sends its destructive particles as far as Scotland and Holland.

Our Alaskan wonderland, as a consequence of the eternal fires of its subterranean furnaces, has its thermal springs in addition to those which are mineral in character.

The large Sulphur Iodine Springs, twelve miles from Sitka, are even now largely patronized for their remedial qualities in many diseases. The Hoonah Springs, also celebrated for their healing effect of their waters, are less famous only on account of the inconvenience of reaching them.

It is also known that there are hot marshes and a lake of sulphur in the Plutonic domain of Unimak Island. There is also a warm lake "officially re-

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ported" on the Upper Tananna. There are also hot springs, some of them boiling, on the Islands of Unalaska, Atka, Akun, Kagamil and Nanaga and even more numerous on the main land.

As science and exploration unfold the still unrevealed mysteries of our Alaskan wonderland all these marvelous works of the Creator will be fully revealed to an astonished world and brought into economic relation to the necessities and ailments of man.

The geysers of our own Yellowstone park with the same physical phenomena of Iceland. The thermal springs of Alaska outnumber and outdo in volume those of our own Arkansan and Virginian sources of supply, doubtless heated by Alaskan fires. They even exceed the European waters supplied from Icelandic boiling springs or warmed by Vesuvian or Sicilian fires.

So that whatever population may in the progress of years colonize and accumulate in Alaska and its adjacent isles, that portion of our fellow-citizens, it may be said, will not be exceptions in experiences to their fellow-beings in other regions of the globe similarly supplied with these terrific mountain wonders, health-giving waters and strange sources of daily occupation and remunerative profit.

The outlook of the future in our Alaskan possessions does not require the stimulus of a very lively imagination in order to picture a few convenient resorts for summer tourists into the wierd regions of ice and fire.

It might have been said of Southern California in early days. Now we find some of the finest hosteleries in the country in different parts of that health-yielding region.

The summer tourist to Alaska is not even now a novelty. That wonderful region has been a favorite outing for a number of our people for some years.

The stimulus, however, of recent and prospective events is likely to make our fellow-citizens more familiar with our Alaskan Wonderland than they have been.

ICY LABORATORIES.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER VIII.

The Glacial Theory of Continent Building in Operation.

Ice Cakes of Europe Compared With Ice Torrents and Ice Seas of Alaska.

A Bond of Frozen Rivers from Frigid Aerial Solitudes to Melting Sea Levels.

Cold Storage for Pacific Commonwealths

The army of "globe trotters" of the United States and the scouting parties of tourists on England and the Continent in the past have satisfied their love of the wonderful in the higher altitudes of the earth's crust in the little Alpine Republic of Switzerland, with an occasional diversion in the direction of the higher latitudes of Norway, where the marvellous accumulations and fantastic forms of ice and snow constitute an important feature in the landscape.

There are other mountain giants in the world which rear their majestic heads high up into the skyward strata of the atmosphere from which we draw our life

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breath, but in none of them do we find to a comparable extent those remarkable frozen masses known to physical geography as glaciers, as in our own Alaska.

It may not be amiss to say by way of detail to the vague view that many entertain of the real significance of a glacier, that it is a river of ice slowly descending the mountain side.

It originates as a frozen mass of snow in the hollows of the mountains above the line of perpetual congelation. It then becomes consolidated and hardened by a pressure beyond the range of human conception in tons and is further compacted and solidified by freezing water.

It descends from its birthplace of everlasting solitude and ice through the valleys in the mountain till it reaches in its descent the line of temperature where melting begins. In its frozen course, with a movement in Alaskan glaciers of 20 to 30 feet a day, it brings down earth, stones and rubbish, generally termed moraine. These enormous transported deposits mark the limit of the glaciers mighty march. Sometimes abnormal conditions forcing the ice mass beyond its previous limits, shoves forward the turf, uproots trees and overwhelms everything in its pathway. This is the glacial process of continent making.

These catastrophies are not uncommon in Switzerland and Norway.

The lower ends, through melting, assume many fantastic forms and reflect prismatic hues from the effect of sunlight.

The antipodal products of Nature's Alaskan laboratories grow more replete with wonder as we pursue our course of fact and narration. The volcanic fires of Unimak and the isles and mainland of Alaska, the thermal waters of Barauoff, the hot marshes, boiling pools, sulphurous ponds and limpid lakes have passed before our wondering fancies.

Now we ascend to the heavenward silence of great mountain tops to contemplate what we find there to add to the long category of Nature's handiwork in our Alaskan Wonderland.

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The steamers which ply in Alaskan waters, taking their departure from San Francisco, Portland or Seattle, or from our cross border foreign city of Victoria, after skipping the gap in our western littoral occupied by British Columbia from latitude 49 to Dixon entrance at the famous latitude "54-40 or fight," again enter the jurisdiction of the United States.

Thence they can take the outside waters of the Pacific or one of the enchanting inland marine ways of South-eastern Alaska until they reach where Lynn Canal and Icy Strait blend their waters.

The former would bear us to headwaters at the foot of Chilkat and Chilkoot Passes, and the modern miner's outfitting town of Dyea, leaving Juneau, its rival, on the right at the head of Stephen's Passage and the latter into Glacier Bay, in the very heart of the mighty snowy glacier making masses of the St. Elias Range.

There we would find ourselves on the frontiers of a glacier land unrivalled in the world.

Along the waterways from the Taku River and its outlet into Stephen's Passage in latitude 58-30 degrees to 60-30 we traverse shores lined with mountains of giddy height, the home of glaciers, foot hills of moraine and a soil carpetted by sphagnum, a sub-Arctic variety of bog moss.

The monarch of the glacial masses of this region occupy the elevations of eternal snow which overlook Glacier Bay, with Muir as the largest and the cluster of towering summits grouped about St. Elias, at the foot of which spreads the enormous ice mass of the Malaspina Glacier.

The region covering 3 degrees of sea-coast and lying within the ten marine league limit of United States jurisdiction, covers an area of over 210 by 30 miles, or 6,300 square miles, nearly one-half the entire area of the mountain Republic of Switzerland, and but little short of the

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size of our own mountain Commonwealth, New Hampshire.

As we approach the Fair weather Range of mountains from the south in latitude 58-20 north and longitude 135-30 west, on the starboard, in the vocabulary of navigation, right, may be descried a narrow channel known as Icy Strait. Within the portals of this outlet of frigid waters into Cross Sound, one of the numerous estuaries of the Pacific along the Alaskan Coast line, lies Glacier Bay another of the many wonders of our Alaskan Wonderland.

The bay itself is about 50 miles in length and 5 to 10 miles in width, with an area of 330 square miles. Its marginal fringe of mountains in themselves of no mean altitude, is thrown in the shade by the towering summits of Fair weather 15,292 feet, Perouse 10,740, Cullom 15,900 and Lituya 11,832, the birthplace of enormous masses of ice which give the bay its name.

The sun-set effects, owing to the trend of the bay, show out marvelous touches of light and shade from the sombreness of the evening shadows of summer to the firelike glow sent down through the trough of the mountains to touch with its tints the islets in the water.

The weird grandeur of the scene is indescribable. In many parts the limestone rock, polished and scratched by the glaciers' irresistible flow, can be touched from a boat at the water's edge. The outlet but $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles in width, carries in and out every six hours water enough to change the level 18 to 20 feet. This means about one cubic mile of water rushing through four times a day.

The rock masses peculiar to the bay, some 500 feet high, have canals gouged through them, separating masses of 3,000 feet long from the mountain. The islands, some of sand and some of limestone or slate, range from the merest specks to $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long. The higher elevations are bare of vegetation. Lower down are patches of horse tails and dwarf willows. Between Muir and Tidal Inlet the mountain sides are green

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and supply grazing for numerous wild goat and ground hogs, while shubbery of alder and cottonwood 15 feet high furnish cover for the beautiful white and grey ptarmigan.

On the opposite shore wild strawberries are abundant in August. In some of the coves coniferous trees chiefly spruce, thrive at 1,500 to 2,000 feet above the tide.

The bay has numerous inlets and tributary valleys among its many characteristics extending 10 miles inland, from which icebergs are in full view.

Of the 23 distinct glaciers visible from the waters of Glacier Bay, that known as Muir is the largest and most important. It is visible 20 miles down the bay as an ice cliff. Vessels can anchor within three-fourths of a mile and can steam within 200 yards of its radiant vertical wall of ice, 200 feet high, which extends a distance of 2 miles in length. Such a spectacle in nature does not exist outside of Alaska elsewhere in the world.

The Dying Glacier, nearby, shows the vast operations of slow diminution of one of these mighty ice kings. The sheer mountains afford no place for landing. Hundreds of tons of rock have broken off and disappeared in the waters. Streams dash down the mountains from mysterious snow masses buried in the air out of view. Some have disappeared into chasms in the limestone and burst forth again from openings in the cliffs.

The Twin Glaciers unite their immense ice streams 4 miles inland. Here and there an iceberg floats off and in the distance may be seen fleecy Fairweather and double-crested Lituva.

To describe all the wonders of Glacier Bay and its glaciers would make a volume replete with interest.

The following table will afford some idea of the dimensions of eight of the largest, as given officially by Mr. Reid, of the United States Geological Survey:

The Muir Glacier is 9,200 feet broad, exclusive of its immense wings, with a depth of water 720 feet and height of ice front from 130 to 210 feet. The thick-

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ness of the ice at the glacier's end is 900 feet.

The Grand Pacific, western end, is 8,200 feet broad and has 135 to 190 feet height of ice front. The John Hopkins, Hugh Miller, Carroll, eike, Charpentier, Grand Pacific (eastern end), and Rendu range from 3,000 to 6,600 feet in breadth to 200 feet ice front, and some of them 700 feet thick.

Another novelty of the shores of this bay are the buried forest, which show a heavy growth of trees on the clays of the bay 50 to 75 feet above tide, which, in the irresistible process of nature by flood and ice, were buried in places 20 feet in sand and gravel brought down in the ice streams. In the Muir Inlet the ice was 8,000 feet thick and at the upper end 1,000 thicker.

These great masses were described by Vancouver 100 years ago and have not materially changed.

The retreat of the glaciers, it is computed, began about 150 years since, judging by the morainal deposits and ravines and descriptions of contemporary navigators. The retreat and increase of the inlets is still going on perceptibly to scientific research. The region around the bay trending northeast and southwest is declared by eminent authorities like H. Fielding Reid as marking the direction of the growth of the western part of the continent we inhabit.

Continuing our course through Cross Sound, into the open ocean, skirting the forest-fringed shore, where lofty mountains and glistening glaciers form the background, in 59-40, we reach Ocean Cape, rounding which we enter Yakutat Bay, a spacious inlet on the northern shore of which and stretching landward and oceanward is the mightiest monarch of the compact ice masses of the globe south of the Arctic Circle.

There is no region more replete with the wondrous handicraft of nature than this. On the one side of the head of Yakutat, which bears the name Disenchantment Bay, a blind extension of the former are weird forests, gigantic moun-

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tains piled up to 10,000 feet and filled with glaciers. On the other side, sweeping from 139-30 to 142 degrees in longitude and astride latitude 60 degrees north along the north shores of Yakutat and along the ocean shore to Icy Cape, lies that vast mass of ice known on the charts as Malaspina Glacier.

This physical wonder, fed by mighty tributary rivers of ice from the eternal solitudes of the mountain crests of the Augusta Range, St. Elias and Logan, receives the immense frozen flood which makes its way between two distinct ranges through Seward Glacier.

From Icy Bay, where Yahtse River empties its frigid torrent into the ocean the escarpment of the Chaix Hills lies like outworks to the lofty elevations beyond. After penetrating a few miles of tangled forest and a barren moraine is reached, the vast field of ice. The mighty ice body, which introduced to science the type of Piedmont Glaciers, is formed at the foot of the mountain by the uniting and expansion of ice streams from adjacent heights. The ice sheet extends in an unbroken compact mass from Yakutat Bay, 70 miles westward with an average breadth of 25 miles, about 1,800 square miles or one-eighth the whole area of Switzerland, a land of glaciers.

It is a vast horizontal plateau of ice about 1,500 feet high about 5 miles from its water border. The center is free from morainal dirt but dangerously fissured with crevasses. It may be compared to a lifeless prairie of ice. From its rolling elevations the frozen mass recedes in all directions. From the mountains on its northern border it sweeps beyond the range of vision. Its surface runs in waves, in place of pyramids and lakelets,

On its outer fringing moraines, near the Seward Glacier, which rests on the ice, it is remarkable to find spruce, cottonwood, alder and an endless variety of shrubbery in full growth. It is estimated that the ice beneath the crust which sustains the dense forest is not less than 1,000 feet deep. Marginal lakes formed

OUR ALASKAN

by southern exposure are numerous, as are alluvial cones.

The explorations of the future will have even more wonderful revelations to make than have been reported by the efficient explorers of the United States Geological Survey.

The Disenchantment Bay, an arm of Yakutat, fills a deep glaciated valley, fed by a glacier at the head, about five miles distant.

The discoverers, Malaspina in 1791, and Puget in 1794, found at Heanke Islands an ice wall which they could not cross.

At the eastern end of the bay an enormous glacier comes down to the water's edge and sends off many bergs. At Cape Enchantment boats can run alongside of the fronting precipices.

There are three of these glaciers in this region which reach the water's edge and send off bergs.

Mr. Israel C. Russel in his official report to the National Survey, gives a vivid picture of the magnificence of this region.

"When this splendid inlet becomes a resort for tourists as it must in the near future, there are four points which should be visited, Haenke and Oiser Islands and Capes Enchantment and Stoss. * * From these points the scenery of the bay is magnificent," possessing all the splendors of Lynn Canal with "the added charm of vast snow covered ranges" presenting every variety and novelty of glacial scenery.

It is also marvelous that the largest ocean steamer may safely venture to the head of the inlet and all the time have in view "magnificent scenery the like of which has never been seen by those who have not been fortunate enough to visit Alaska."

Our scientific official authority adds: "Scarcely a cloud obscured the sky. The majestic mountains with their brilliant snow fields and hundreds of shining glaciers, which rise abruptly from the shore all the way to Cross Sound, were in full view. A more enjoyable ocean trip than

WONDERLAND

the voyage along the sublime Fairweather coast, when the sea is smooth and the mountains unclouded, can scarcely be imagined and probably does not exist."

It may be instructive by way of comparison with our home glacial "industry" to add that the Swiss Alpine glaciers range from 20 to 25 miles in length with a breadth of two or three miles and a depth of 600 feet.

The Malaspina glacier of Alaska is as wide as the longest of the Swiss samples, nearly three times the length and 720 feet deep.

The glaciers of Greenland within the Arctic circle and Alaska at Malaspina, 7 degrees below it, are the only ones unless they exist in the Antarctic Circle, which extend into the sea and break off, floating away in the ocean currents as icebergs. The Rhone and Aar glaciers; the glacier of the Bernese Oberland; the Grindwald with its Mer de Glace; Jungfrau, queen of the Bernese Alps; the Eiger, Wetterhorn, and the glacier of Bonsons at Chamouni are the finest types of the Swiss group.

The Alpine heights of Austria, France and Italy also have thier icy wonders. The largest Alpine glacier is the Gross Aletsch in the Bernese Oberland, fifteen miles long, with a maximum breadth of little over a mile, its basin being 50 square miles. This even is but a huge cake of ice compared with our own Alaskan Malaspina, which is nearly five times as long and nearly twenty times as broad and thirty-six times the area.

In Norway, about the same latitude, are some interesting exhibitions of snow masses, the largest of which are Justedal and Folegejon, but neither bear any comparison to our own Alaskan monarch, Malaspina.

The Alaskan glaciers of Glacier, Yakutat and Disenchantment Bays have the advantage of being seen at close range from the decks of luxurious steamers which are even now largely patronized by summer tourists to our Alaskan Wonderland.

OUR ALASKAN

glaciers in sight from Lynn Canal alone, which do not take into account the immense ice masses of Glacier and Yakutat Bays and Fairweather and St. Elias mountains. Possibly as the mysteries of the inland are revealed they will be numbered by hundreds instead of by scores.

The interested peoples of the world have been entertained since science and narration became an art with exhaustive treatises on the glaciers of Switzerland, Austria, Italy, France, Norway and other portions of the globe where such manifestations of nature appear.

The study of our own Alaskan product will show them to be the most extensive and interesting of any on the globe south of the Arctic or north of the Antarctic Circles.

There is no region of glaciers comparable to that from Chilkat Inlet, longitude 135 degrees, to Cook Inlet, 152 west and 60 degrees north, nearly 700 miles. This icy stretch embraces the groups of Glacier and Yakutat Bays. From Yakutat Bay to Copper River, a distance of about 250 miles, is almost an unbroken ice sheet which embraces the mighty Malaspina, Bering, Miles and Childs landlocked seas of ice. Science clearly demonstrates that before the period of recorded narration of this region there existed a mighty ice wall along this coast with enormous cavernous ice depths like crystal caves, through which the inland torrents of the mountains forced their irresistible way into the great ocean.

But all this grandeur of ice scenery in our own Alaska possesses an economic as well as scenic value.

The vast stretch of ocean shore from the Tropic of Capricorn on the south to Cancer and even to 50 degrees latitude on the north, over 70 degrees, about 5,000 statute miles, is without a home supply of ice for domestic and commercial purposes.

The few remote localities in the highest altitude, where it does form, are inaccessible and unsuitable. In Alaska on the larger islands are numerous limpid lakes with water of the purest health imparting

WONDERLAND

There are official reports of over 60 quality and convenient to navigable water in winter which are even now being utilized as an ice supply for our own States and other seaside cities along the Pacific coast into and beyond the American tropical zone.

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CLIMATIC ALASKA.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XIV.

**Mercury on the Jump from 80
Below to 87 Above Zero.**

**Annual Mean Climatic Scale 44 at
Sitka to 7.7 at Point Barrow.**

**The Scandinavian Kingdom in the Same
Latitude With Seven Millions of
People, and No Golden Sands.**

**Influence of the Mid-Ocean River, the
Kiro Siwo.**

The extremes of mountains of fire and seas of ice on land find their counter part in the extremes of temperature in the atmosphere of the coast and the interior. The common knowledge of the climatic conditions of Alaska are mostly derived from whaling logs and the desultory tales of the hardy "salts" who have tossed about upon those tempestuous seas harpooning whales or catching and canning salmon and gathering other abundant marketable products of Alaskan waters. It therefore blew hot or cold, according to the temporal environments and experiences of the individual in evidence.

OUR ALASKAN

The climatology of Alaska, however, derives its scientific and official sources of authority from Russian records commenced as early as 1827 at Unalaska, 1828 at Sitka, from incidental sources at Point Barrow 1852, Fort Yukon 1861, Fort Wrangell 1868, Kadiak 1869, and from United States Signal Service sources at Unalaska 1872 and Sitka 1881, and since at those and other points.

The gulf stream of the Atlantic which makes the British Isles and northern Germany in the latitudes of Southeastern Alaska, and Norway and Sweden in the still higher latitudes of Western Alaska, the centres of large population and the highest advances in intellectual and industrial expansion, finds its counterpart in the Kuro Siwo or Japan stream of the Pacific.

That mighty mid-ocean river of warm waters, beginning in the tropical seas of China and the Philippines sweeping off the south coast of Japan follows the Aleutian chain until it "impinges," officially speaking, "on the coast of British Columbia, one branch flowing northward toward Sitka and thence westward to the Kadiak and Shumagin Islands, off the Alaskan Peninsula, the other curving southward and westward toward Hawaii."

This current, dividing on the eastern end of the Aleutian chain of islands, extends northward, which will explain the absence of ice drifting southward, as we find it coming down Davis Straits from Greenland. It is also the moist airs of this same warm current drifting landward which causes the enormous amount of fog and precipitation in the form of rain.

The numerous islands which lie off the Alaskan mainland from Dixon entrance to the northward and the corresponding coast line to the western extremity of Alaska enjoys a salubrious climate. In this region the mean temperature at Sitka, the capital of Alaska, is 44.5 degrees Fahrenheit or about the same as Washington, the Capital of the United States.

These favorable conditions are not alone confined to Sitka, situated on an

island in more immediate contact with these atmosphere moderating currents, but Killisnoo and Juneau at the sea side base of the coast range enjoy nearly the same mild temperature during the winter months.

The official data shows that the temperature changes from month to month in Southeastern Alaska do not exceed 25 degrees from midwinter to midsummer. The records show that the July average, the hottest month, rarely reaches 55 degrees and the maximum for a single day seldom reaches 75 degrees.

As we go north of the Aleutian Islands the winter coast climate is more rigorous, but in summer the difference is not so great.

At St. Michaels, about 73 miles above the mouth of the Yukon, the mean summer temperature is 50 degrees, but 4 degrees cooler than at Sitka, about 480 miles further south.

At Point Barrow, the most northerly point in the United States, the mean in summer is 36.8 degrees, about the temperature of the air flowing across the summit of Pike's Peak, Colorado.

The difference between the genial temperatures along the coast and on the elevated plateaus of the interior are about as marked figuratively as the volcanic fires of the Aleutian chain and the Malaspina sea of ice.

The United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, like the United States Weather Bureau, which may always be relied upon for perfection of instruments and accuracy of reading, gives the following observations for six months, October, 1889-April, 1890, taken on the Yukon, near the site of the gold discoveries and rush of 1897, mean temperature. October, plus 33; November, plus 8; December, minus 11; January, minus 17; February, minus 15; March, plus 6; April, plus 20 degrees.

The daily mean temperature fell and remained below the freezing point, plus 32, from November 4th, 1889, to April 21st, 1890.

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The following shows the severest cold registered during the same period, all below zero: November, 32 degrees; December, 47; January, 59; February, 55; March, 45; April, 26. During February the cold remained minus 47 five consecutive days. A severer degree of cold has been experienced in "the States" but not for any length of time.

In the Alaskan interior snow storms set in in September and may occur until May in the mountains and passes and woe to the wayfarer caught in their fierce embrace.

The mean summer temperature ranges between 60 and 70 degrees according to elevation, the highest in the middle and lower Yukon.

These possibly dry but supremely important details, in a complete general knowledge of our Alaskan Wonderland may be varied by a few authoritative points concerning the rains of Alaska.

The rains and clouds of our Northern possessions, like many other objects in nature, "beat the record" at large.

The average number of clear days is 66. A view of this Wonderland on one of those sixty-six sunshiny days, as viewed through "official" eyes, will reveal "the atmosphere remarkably clear, the scenic effects magnificent, and all nature seeming to be in holiday attire."

The scene, however, may change in "the twinkling of an eye." "The sky becomes overcast, the winds increase in force; rain begins to fall; the evergreens sigh ominously, and utter desolation and loneliness prevail."

The durations of daylight and darkness, varying with the summer and the winter solstice, again present the wondering contrasts which we find in our Alaskan Wonderland on the land, on the sea, under the sea and in the atmosphere.

In May the orb of day shows its smiling disc on the lofty mountain tops at 3 o'clock in the morning, and embosoms itself behind the blue waves of the Pacific at 9 o'clock in the night. In June it greets the everlasting snows of the mountains at half past one o'clock in the morn-

ing and disappears at half-past ten o'clock in the evening, leaving but four hours of resplendent twilight.

The rhapsodies of the poetic imagination over the land of the Midnight Sun finds its counterpart within our own domain by simply shifting the scene from North Cape, at the peak of the Scandinavian Peninsula around the cap of the globe to our own Point Barrow in Wonderland Alaska on the same parallel of 71 degrees 22 minutes, from 25 degrees longitude east to 156 degrees longitude west or almost precisely one-half of the circuit of the globe within 19 degrees of the northern polar axis of the earth, and you will find yourself gazing at that self-same Midnight Sun, which the illustrious traveler, Bayard Taylor, so vividly described from North Cape in Norway, when our Alaskan Wonderland was unknown and Russian America almost a myth.

He thus portrays a midnight scene: "The headlands of this deeply indented coast lay around us * * * but all with foreheads touched with super-natural glory. Far to the northeast was Nord-kye, the most northern point of the mainland of Europe, gleaming rosily and faint in the full beams of the sun, and just as our watches denoted midnight the north appeared to be westward, a long line of purple bluff presenting a vertical front of 900 feet in height to the Polar Ocean."

"Midway between these two magnificent headlands stood the Midnight Sun shining on us with subdued fires and with the gorgeous coloring of an hour for which we have no name, since it is neither sunrise nor sunset, but the blended loveliness of both, but shining at the same moment in the heat and splendor at noon-day on the Pacific Isles."

That same noonday reigned in the solitudes of that same polar shore which today has for its topmost place of human habitation on the American mainland Point Barrow in our own Alaskan Wonderland.

With these conditions reversed on the upper Yukon in the vicinity of our own

OUR ALASKAN

Alaskan gold regions and Klondike neighbor, the mid-winter sun rises at 10 o'clock in the morning and sets at 2 o'clock in the afternoon, leaving but four hours of daylight. The sun for that brief duration appearing but a few degrees above the horizon and most of the time obscured by driving, frozen mists, we have all the dreariness, solitude and death-like silence of the long, long Arctic night.

The climate of Alaska, compiled by A. J. Henry, Chief of Division of Records and Meteorological Data, in monthly and annual mean temperature in degrees, Fahrenheit is given in the following comprehensive table:

STATIONS.	Latitude.		Longitude.		July.	December.	Annual.
	°	'	°	'	°	°	°
COAST.							
Fort Wrangell..	56	30	132	28	58.2	32.8	43.0
Sitka*.....	57	03	135	17	55.4	33.3	43.3
Sitka†.....					54.4	36.0	44.5
Killisnoo.....	57	22	134	29	54.8	30.6	39.8
Juneau.....	53	19	134	28	56.6	29.3	40.9
Kadiak.....	57	48	152	19	54.7	30.5	40.6
Unalaska*.....	53	53	166	32	50.6	30.1	38.7
Unalaska†.....	53	54	166	24	49.6	32.8	39.3
St. Michael's.....	63	28	161	48	53.6	4.8	26.1
Point Barrow..	71	22	156	16	38.1	-15.4	7.7
INTERIOR.							
Anvik.....	62	37	160	08		-2.1	
Nuklukayet....	65	10	152	45		-19.9	
Fort Yukon.....	66	33	145	18			
Tchatowklln...	65	30	142	38		-15.0	
Fort Reliance..	64	10	139	25		-21.4	
Camp Davidson					60.3	-15.6	22.9
Camp Colonna..						-17.4	

*Russian series.

†U. S. signal service.

The following gives the extremes of temperature at the interior stations named:

WONDERLAND

Extremes of Temperature—Maximum.

	January.	March.	July.	September.	December.
Anvik.....	35	46		66	25
Nuklukayet....	35	46		72	17
Tchatowklin ..	17	56		78	39
Fort Reliance..	20	45		67	34
Camp Davidson	25	38	87	66	17
Camp Colonna	17	33	85		17

Extremes of Temperature—Minimum.

					
Anvik.....					
Nuklukayet....	-76	-38		12	-68
Tchatowklin ..	-75	-56		8	-68
Fort Reliance..	-80	-36		18	-69
Camp Davidson	-60	-45	85	14	-49
Camp Colonna	-49	-48	36		-43

In the missing extremes of temperature the figures respectively in degrees are Anvik, maximum, May, 67; August, 65; Nuklukayet respectively 72 and 79; Tchatowklin, 82 and 80; Fort Reliance, June, 76.

The extremes of minimum in degrees as far as recorded, were Nuklukayet May, 11; August, 28; Tchatowklin May, 10; August, 30; Fort Reliance May, 16.

Montana is the coldest State in the Union. A temperature of 63 degrees below zero was recorded at Poplar River, Montana, in January, 1885. This is the lowest point ever reached in the United States and recorded. Wisconsin, Michigan and Minnesota also experience very low temperatures in winter.

At St. Michael's, on Norton Sound, the starting point for steamers ascending the Yukon, about 73 miles north of the mouth of the river, according to official reports of the United States Signal Office, the bays are frozen over during the last week in October and remain closed until the latter part of June, although it is possible to enter the Sound by the middle of June.

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The winter months will average seven, October to May, and the summer months the remaining five.

From observations taken on board the U. S. S. *Pinta* at Sitka and other places in Southeastern Alaska July 1, 1890, April 30, 1891, the following average temperature of tidal water is recorded: 1890, July, 60.5 degrees; September, 54; December, 42.8; March, 41.09. The largest number of fair days was seventeen in August and seventeen in February, and the least number two in February. Of cloudy days during the same period there were fifteen in July and thirteen in June. Of days of rain or snow, twenty-three, with thunder and lightning on the 26th and 27th in September, and 24 in January. There was thunder and lightning on December 5th and 6th. For the entire twelve months of that period there were fair 125, cloudy 82, rain or snow 158 days. Total 365 days.

The climatic conditions of Norway register somewhat higher than the same latitudes in Alaska owing to the immediate vicinity of the Atlantic equatorial current, the Gulf Stream. Norway lies between the parallels 57 degrees, 59 minutes and 71 degrees and 21 minutes. At Hammerfest, 70 degrees, 20 minutes, the highest town in Norway, the warm current follows that shore into the Polar Sea around. It is this same tempering influence which even modifies the rigors of Spitzbergen in the latitude of 80 degrees and Nova Zembla in 75 degrees, five and ten degrees farther north than Hammerfest and in the same polar segment of the earth.

At Hammerfest, the most northern town in Europe, the winter mean is 22.6 degrees Fahrenheit, which is three degrees higher than Christiania in temperature and over ten degrees nearer the frozen pole in latitude.

At the American whaling station, Point Barrow, in the latitude of Hammerfest, the winter mean is about -15. It should be remembered that this point is not even remotely affected by any of the

warm currents of the ocean, which do not pass northward of the Aleutian chain.

Inland in Norway the mercury freezes (40 F.), and the temperature does not materially differ from inland Alaska in the same latitudes. The rainfall on the coast is from 40 to 70 inches, while in the interior 12 to 16 inches, or not materially different from Alaska.

In the midst of these frigid conditions Norway ranks among the kingdoms of the earth, being 124,445 square miles in area, or less than one-fourth the size of Alaska, and has a population of over 2,000,000 inhabitants.

The whole area of Norway is about three and one-third degrees, or 230 miles, north of the southern boundary of Southeastern Alaska. The temperature of Southeastern Alaska, affected by the Pacific equatorial current, is more moderate than Norway, the winter mean at Sitka, Alaska's capital, being over 33 degrees, as against about 19.6 degrees at Christiana, Norway's capital.

As for the Swedish wing of the twin kingdom of the Scandinavian Peninsula, the difference between the winter and summer temperatures, coast and inland, ranges 49.7 degrees in the north, where the lakes are frozen 220 days, and 30 degrees in the south, where the lakes are frozen 90 days in the year.

And yet Sweden, 173,000 square miles in area, about one-third the size of Alaska, has a population of 4,800,000.

It furnished some of the most brilliant military leaders of modern times and has been abreast of the rest of continental Europe in enlightened government and progress in the arts of peace. Its capital, Stockholm, lies in latitude 59.40, or about two and one-half degrees farther north than Sitka, the capital of Alaska.

In Russia, with the United States the greatest power on the face of the globe, the average temperature in January is below freezing. The rivers from December 1st remain frozen 100 days in the south; 150 to 167 days in the north. Only beyond the parallel of 62 does the July mean fall below 62 degrees.

OUR ALASKAN WONDERLAND

In Siberia, reputed to be the coldest country in the world, melons grow on the steppes of Minusinsk and about Irkutsk, latitude 62 degrees north, barley is sown in May and reaped in August. And yet at Verkhoyansk and Yakutch, latitude $62\frac{1}{2}$, the cold pole of the Eastern Hemisphere, the thermometer—75 to 85 degrees—is 5 to 10 degrees colder than the extreme at Fort Reliance in Alaska.

St. Petersburg, the capital of powerful Russia, on the northern parallel of 60 degrees, is three degrees north of Sitka, our Alaskan capital, and 21 degrees, or 1,460 statute miles, north of Washington, the capital of the United States.

The capital of Alaska, Sitka, is 18 degrees of latitude, or 1,250 statute miles, north of the capital of the United States.

That it is cold in Alaska no one questions. That it is, mean, colder in the United States from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains along the parallel of boundary between the United States and the present British possessions north of the 49th parallel, than many parts of Alaska, will also be found established by scientific data.

The unexploited wealth of Alaska as exploration, research, science and industry bring it into marketable value will in dollars as the best portions of the United States and probably greater than in some sections under the national jurisdiction. The adaptability of the American citizen to all conditions of climate and soil has and if it pays now will speedily solve the problem which is so largely entering into the anticipations and calculations of the official and unofficial world not only in the United States but within the borders of our northern neighbor.

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AN ARCTIC EDEN.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XV.

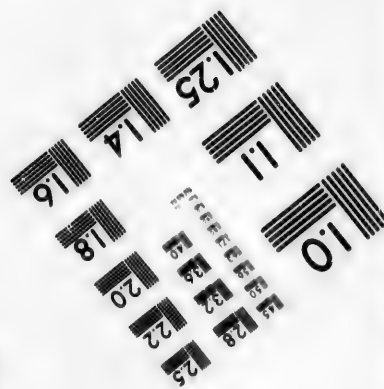
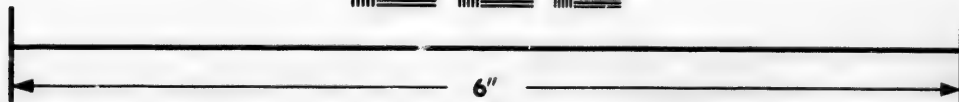
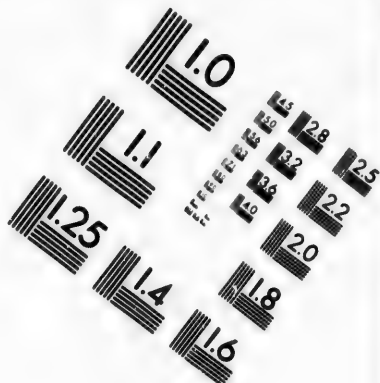
Something About Our Fellow Citizens from Alaska.

Walrus, Salmon and Moose Instead of Apples---Sea Otter and Seal Skins Instead of Fig Leaves.

Hwai Shan, of China, Discounts Biørne,
of Scandinavia Five, and Colum-
bus, the Italian, from Spain
Ten Centuries.

In the hurry of current and prospective events within the area of "Our Golden Wonderland of Alaska and Klondike neighbor," and in view of the vast accessions to its population under the alluring prospects of a golden road to wealth, it will be interesting and instructive to tarry for a moment in our narrative to take a quick glance at the native races which passed under the jurisdiction, if not into full fellow-citizenship, of the United States of America, when the great Secretary accomplished the cession of the vast regions which they inhabited.

In the progressive development of Alaska these native occupants of the soil are not likely to figure very extensively in the immediate future at least in either the arts of peace or war, being few in numbers, peaceful and inoffensive in spirit,



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and not advanced much beyond the rudimentary stages of primitive man.

They seem to be logically arranged by language, characteristics and local considerations in four generic areas, if not generic races.

The most numerous and widely spread are the Eskimos or Innuits. (Eskimo generally used means "raw fish eaters.")

This race of polar people which numbered 12,784 under the eleventh census, inhabit the Alaskan coast line of the Arctic Ocean and Bering Sea and are not unlike in language, habits, customs, physical characteristics and occupations their kinsmen of Greenland and even Lapland. They are rugged, hardy and patient under the adverse and inhospitable conditions of the Arctic zone. Their main and only occupation is a constant warfare with nature, and the eking out of a scant subsistence in the perilous pursuit of the walrus and whale and smaller finny denizens of the deep and the streams, besides hunting the caribou, moose and other game of the land.

The racial division next in numbers is the Thlingket, by the census of 1890, the latest official figures accessible, 4,739. To these people occupying the mainland and off coast islands of Southeastern Alaska, must be added the Tsimpseans, 951, and Haidas, 391, making a total of 6,081.

These three somewhat similar people, alike in character, customs and habits, but differing in language, represent the best types of the native races of Alaska. Their contact with the white Americans and their employment by them in various occupations on sea and land, has been sufficient inducement to adopt the American language, to learn to read and write, and as far as practical to apply their mode of living. They are of greater stature than the stunted Eskimos farther north, and display extraordinary powers of endurance. The hereditary tendency to pulmonary, rheumatic and other ailments which follow in the train of aquatic pursuits and hardships on land, causes great havoc among them.

Another branch of the Alaskan native

WONDERLAND

inhabitants is the Athabaskan or Tinneh race, which numbered 3,441 in the last census. These people are allied to the once widely spread copper-colored North American Indian, the same with whom our forefathers had such a thrilling experience during the Colonial, Continental and Constitutional eras of our national history.

These people are classed as homogeneous in racial characteristics with the wild savages which roam over the unoccupied regions from the Arctic Basin of the Mackenzie along the eastern slopes of the Rockies as far south as the sub-tropical valley of the Rio Grande. Within our own borders the representatives of this aboriginal race have been predatory, fierce and warlike. They extend over the line of international boundary toward Bering Sea, but not to the coast, which is occupied by the Eskimos, and thence into the Valley of the Porcupine, across the Yukon and the Tanana into the Valley of the Sushitna and down to Cook Inlet of the Alaskan Gulf.

In this expanse of territory are included the gold region of Forty-Mile Creek, Klondike and other regions showing "color."

These Athabascans generally occupy the streams where fish and game are abundant. They had long come in contact with the Hudson Bay Company at Fort Selkirk, Fort Yukon and other posts in that wild region in the barter of valuable peltries for the simple requirements of their methods of living and all important fire-arms and ammunition.

In later years, since the American possession, they have come in intercourse with the mining camps on the Upper Yukon, bartering skins and game for rum and tobacco and have acquired other advances in the ways of civilization.

The least numerous of the native races are the Aleuts or Oonagan, who inhabit the Alaskan Peninsula and the vast stretch of islands embraced in the Aleutian chain and the Shumagin group. These people number 368, and are rapidly diminishing in numbers. From long inter-

OUR ALASKAN

course with the former Russian possessors of the country they have become Russian in language, religion, modes of life and even physical characteristics.

They are a peaceful race and make a living hunting the sea otter for its valuable pelt and fishing.

The total enumeration of the Alaskan races in 1890 was 23,274.

Their number was approximated at a much higher figure in 1868, the year after the cession. In a military report in that year they were given at 82,400, and to that the same year in a report to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs 11,000 Thlingkets were added, which would make an aggregate of 93,400. An exaggeration.

The tenth census (1880) fixed their numbers at 33,426, which showed a decided difference. The reports are not regarded as wholly reliable.

The eleventh census (1890), which was the first as far as it went, giving the enumeration of the occupants of the country in detail, stated the native races 23,532, or males 12,106, females 11,426.

A consensus of official conclusions indicates a slow decrease in the native races. They now seem to tend to the common fate of the wild peoples of the Continent after a brief contact with the white population. There is little doubt, however, that this diminution, if it really exists, is largely due to the hardship and exposure attending the native modes of life, but there are also difficulties in the way of accurate enumeration, particularly on account of the wandering lives of the natives during the summer, which might more than make up for discrepancies.

The same environments of nature and difficulty in obtaining a subsistence will explain the low mental and moral condition of these races. It will also explain the lingual diversity which exists. Where two races come in contact there is a mixing of dialects which in the course of time is liable to supercede both of the originals. If these native people survive the impact of a period of aggressive exploitation of Alaskan resources, which seems to be

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the promise of the future, the American tongue and American modes of life will supercede. The native races of late years have manifested an inclination to abandon their precarious and isolated ways of maintaining their families and are gathering about the settlements where the men can find occupations or their families may be protected while they are absent on forays for game or employment in the many enterprises which are springing up throughout the Territory.

The apparent apathy which reigned in the national executive and legislative branches of the Government in everything pertaining to Alaska for seventeen years at least after the acquisition of the Territory, was brought to an end through the recommendations of the United States Army, Navy, Revenue Marine and Scientific Surveys in Alaska on official duty.

The Russian Greek Church interested itself in the work of bettering the condition of the natives with some results during the Emperor's jurisdiction.

Since the inauguration of the United States dominion over the country many of the leading religious denominations have come on the ground and have done nobly in the amelioration of the natives in the enlargement of their sphere of domestic comfort and intelligence and in their adaptation to the requirements of civil and religious life.

In the organic act of 1884 the Secretary of the Interior is directed to make needful and proper provision for the education of the children of school age in the Territory of Alaska without reference to race, until such time as permanent provision shall be made for the same."

The Bureau of Education at Washington city, through its representative, Dr. Sheldon Jackson, and others, has done most effective work. This arable field of official civilizing labor, as I have said, had been allowed to remain in its primitive stage for seventeen years before the necessary legislation could be obtained. The work since has been sagaciously managed. The rising generation will speak, read and write the American vernacular.

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The primary schools which answered the elementary stages of the work are now being supplemented by those of a higher grade.

The exploitation of physical resources; the expansion of industry; the enlargement of educational and religious instruction; the extension of mail facilities and intercourse, not to speak of the marvelous output and prospects of gold, spring over our Alaskan Wonderland an arc of promise which may be a fitting introduction to the dawn of a new century of home and national progress.

The Government, after many years of apathy, has become seriously aroused in behalf of these neglected people. The visible effects of the government schools, supplemented by the missionary denominational efforts are apparent on all sides in advanced education, civilization and Christianity.

The Bureau of Education at the National Capital has promoted the work to an amazing degree.

In 1894 there were fourteen schools supported by the national Government, which have been increased from time to time as the advantage of the native and latterly the white population have seemed to demand. These schools as a rule are open for nine months in the year.

There were in the same year fifteen mission schools which received government aid and six Russian schools maintained by the Greek-Russian Church.

It is an encouraging indication of the future among the Alaskan natives, that unlike the copper-colored aborigines of the "States," who have lived in fierce combat with civilization since the very first landing of the Caucasian race, they co-operate with the civilizing agencies being thrown around them. They resort to the habitations of the white race and dwell under their influence. They speedily abandon their previous nomadic methods of living and seek occupation in mining, fishing and other fixed industries.

Again unlike the copper-colored race, the wards of the nation, the Alaskan na-

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tive with a moiety of an opportunity will make his own way and ask nothing of the Government or his neighbors. All he needs are the same advantages and opportunities accorded to his white fellow citizen.

In 1892 there were eleven church organizations represented, over a widely spread area. The Greek-Russian Church, the original ecclesiastical establishment under the imperial sway, had eleven principal churches with ordained priests and many chapels with resident unordained assistants, with a total membership of 12,000.

The Presbyterian Church nobly leads the way in the American missionary enterprise, having eight stations, seven of which are in Southeastern Alaska. The Roman Church has four stations. The three in the north in the custody of the Jesuits, a hold-over worship instituted by the early French possessors of Canada and maintained by the halfbreed voyageurs, traders and trappers. The official reports indicate that this church establishment has no native membership, but confines its operations more to the infant and growing centers of the white population.

The Protestant Episcopal Church has three flourishing stations. The Moravians, who have done such unpretentious but effective labor among the North American Indians since about 1745, have four stations. The Swedish Evangelical two, the Methodists one, the Congregationalists one, the Society of Friends one and the Independent Church one.

The non-native population under the United States census of 1890, which included transients and laborers in the canneries, who mostly remain during the open season was whites, 4,293; males, 3,860; females, 433; mixed (Russian and native), 1,819; males, 885; females, 934; Mongolians (Chinese and Japanese), 2,287; and all others, 112; males, 111; females, 1. Totals, 8,511; males, 4,856; females, 3,655. There were at the same time of native races, 23,532; males, 12,106; females, 11,426, making a grand total population officially reported in 1890 32,043.

These figures as regards the non-native

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racess have undoubtedly very greatly increased under the impulse of the gold excitement and the employment of a large number of persons in trade transportation and other necessary industries.

The distribution and permanency of this sudden accession will be determined by the revelations of the future.

The treaty of cession provided that the natives, except the uncivilized tribes, who remained in Alaska and did not remove to Russia should be "admitted to the enjoyment of all the rights, advantages and immunities of citizens of the United States and shall be maintained and protected in the full enjoyment of their liberty, property and religion."

Unlike the American Indians, the Alaskan natives, except the Athabascans, lived in fixed abodes and in no way as the copper-colored savage Aborigine of the United States. The Government owns the soil as original purchaser. There have been no treaties with the natives and none are necessary.

The courts have also decided that Alaska is not an Indian country.

Under the organic act of 1884, native offenders have been tried by United States courts without reference to their tribal relations or customs, the same as other citizens. The prolonged litigation relating to the civil status of the Indians of the United States not bound by treaty stipulations and not holding tribal relation has no application to Alaskan natives. They exercise no divided fealty. They are citizens of the United States under the provisions of the treaty which the United States cannot disregard without a breach of international faith with Russia concerning her former citizens.

When the time comes, which seems to be hurrying along, when the inhabitants will be called upon to exercise the full privileges of citizenship under a territorial organic act the native of Alaska not in a wild or uncivilized state will have claim to the inalienable privilege of every American citizen, the right of suffrage. In transportation of goods over the terrible passes they are already largely occupied.

It is not necessary to enter into an erudite ethnological disquisition upon the origin and expansion of the native inhabitants of Alaska.

It is not essential to the marvelous awakening which seems to be awaiting the immediate future to determine in what degree the aboriginal Alaskan is a primate through the remote pedigree of an anthropoidal ape. Nor is it our duty if an ape, as scientists are wont to declare themselves and their kinsmen and civilized friends and relations, to attempt to bring our Alaskan fellow-citizens within that apish category. Nor would it increase our intelligence or quiet our pride to attempt to determine whether they approach the human species in regular scientific sequence, from the most remote claimed ancestors of our scientific authorities the gibbons, the orangs, the chimpanzees and the gorillas. With the last of these anthropoidal gentlemen one might infer from their earnestness that they almost claim ties of consanguinity.

All we inferentially know is that these native races of Alaska, as many also believe of our American Indians, are of Mongolian origin.

Some say the American Indians are descendants or the real and only lost tribes of Israel. The latest by way of Chicago authority is that Adam was a Chinaman. That probably might account for Cain seeking refuge in the land of Nod after the Edenic fratricide.

I can say from personal observation in Mongolia that the Tartar peoples met with in that isolated region have many characteristics, habits and customs strikingly in common with our own aboriginal Indian. William Penn refers to this strange coincidence in his description of his Province. Others have noted it. The writer having been among the Mongolians of Mongolia and the American Indians of the American plains, can testify to the coincidence if not to the absolute fact of some remote contact between these two fierce nomadic and warlike races.

When we contemplate the inquisitive

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pair on the banks of the Euphrates enjoying the love-arousing temperatures of Eden and hiding their forbidden knowledge behind such primitive garments as fig leaves we have but to turn our gaze northwesterly to the other side of the same world and contemplate an Arctic Eden in the remote past inhabited by fierce warriors clad in the skins of beasts and nurturing their hardy bodies upon the flesh of animals as wild and savage as themselves.

In opening intercourse with the inhabitants of the earth subject to the Noahic racial distribution after so many centuries of time the hardy Vikings of the frozen latitudes of Europe or the blood-thirsty Spaniards of Andalusia and Castile were not the first to make the acquaintance of the peoples of the new world.

We have "celestial" authority for the celebrated coasting voyage of Hwui Shan, about 458, from the mainland of China, the land of Nod in Edenic days on the Euphrates, around the Peninsula of Corea, through the Straits of Hakodate, in the land of "the hairy men" (Japan), along the Kurile Archipelago and the Kamtchatkan Peninsula, striking out into the Pacific for Bering Isle and thence from island to island of our own long Aleutian chain and down our Alaskan coast to the country of "painted bodies" along our western shores of Washington, Oregon and California, to the country of silver, which we call Mexico, and into the "country of women" which strongly suggests that Amazonian race of femininity of which we read narrations.

The feasibility of such a nautical venture can be traced on our ordinary school atlases. Of the sea-going qualities of the craft of that day we know nothing, but my own experience has seen demonstrated the seaworthiness of the junks of the modern Chinese in the enormous river coast and ocean trade of that ancient empire.

It is also reported that the "celestial" navigators left the mainland of Asia at

Avatche, the same harbor from which Vitus Bering sailed about twelve centuries later on his voyage of discovery.

There is also a degree of circumstantiality about the narrative in the Chinese text quoted by Vining in his "Inglorious Columbus." "In the first year of the reign of the Ts'i Dynasty * * * 499, a Shaman Buddhist priest, Hwui Shan, came to Kingchen from that country and told the following story regarding the country of Fu Sang Kwoh." * * *

The voyage of the daring Buddhist, Hwui Shan and his party of mendicant Buddhist monks originally from Afghanistan "far in the heart of Asia" in the fifth century was quite as possible on the other side of our continent as the now accepted ventures of the daring Norsemen of Scandinavia five and six centuries later were on this.

Of the daring voyage of Columbus, 1,000 years after Hwui Shan and about 500 years after the Vikings, we know by past history and current results.

ESKIMO-AMERICANS.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XVI.

How Our Native Alaskan Fellow Citizens Live.

Their Iglus and Families; Domestic Economy and Customs; Indus- tries and Diversions.

A Life of Song in a Latitude of Silence.

It is not necessary to struggle up to "Greenland's Icy Mountains," neither to wander off "To India's Coral Strand," nor "Where Afric's sunny fountains—roll down their golden sands," in order to find subjects for the ethnological collection compositely known as the American people.

We have them all gathered within the expansive fold of the Republic in one happy family of races and nationalities. The Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Germanic, Dutch, Scandinavian, Slavic, Aryan, Israelitish, Ishmaelitish and other branches of the Caucasian group; the Mongolian represented by the Japanese and Chinese, the Polynesian in the Hawaiians and Waifs of the South Sea Isles; the African, who traces his lines of ascent to the dusky occupants of the valleys of the Niger and the Congo, and the aboriginal Indian, all together making an "American concert" of peoples vying with each other in the arts of peace and war if need be in defense of free institutions and all the Americas for Americans.

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We who enjoy the conveniences of civilization in its highest forms must not imagine that we know it all. If we were cast upon the shores of our Bering or Arctic Sea possessions, we would doubtless die in the attempt to live. The clubman, too, of Nuwuk and Utkiavwin would doubtless succumb under the fierce "rackets" of the clubman nearer home. The Romeos and Juliets under the sunny skies of Italy find their counterparts in the wierd twilight of the arctic night of Northern Alaska.

Amid such antitheses of surroundings it will be interesting to take a hasty view of the racial traits and modes of living of our indigenous fellow citizens of Alaska, about whom so little is yet popularly known.

There seems to be little room to doubt the general conclusion that they are of the Mongolian stock which found its way to our shores from the mainland of the mother continent, Asia, in the mythical ages, of which we have, as to primitive man, but the silent and unsatisfactory testimony of the different stages of development of the earth's crust.

The most numerous of our Alaskan races are the Polar people, who live within the Arctic Circle from the tributary waters of Kotzebue Sound to the frigid shores of the Arctic Ocean and have their chief resorts for trade at their villages of Nuwuk and Utkiavwin, or Point Barrow, at Beecher's Point and at Wainright Inlet, 75 miles to the southwest and Demarcation Point, the polar land end of the international meridian, 350 miles to the east.

The Eskimo-Americans are of medium height, robust and muscular, rarely exceeding 5 feet 8 inches. They seldom become corpulent, ranging in weight from 126 to 204 pounds among the men, and 100 to 192 pounds among the women. Their hands and feet, particularly of the women, are small and delicate, the same as represented of the Greenland prototypes by the earliest explorers. They have a broad, flat face, high cheek bones,

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a short nose, narrow forehead, horizontal eyes of shades of brown, and a light yellowish brown complexion, sometimes in the women being almost fair.

The Hebrew cast of countenance is not unusual. The hair is black, straight and thick, that of the men rather coarse, and of the women long and silky. The beard in the men is scant.

The men are generally graceful and erect in their carriage, walking with expanded chests and firm tread, the picture of Arctic dignity. The women step with a shuffling, half trot, toes in and body forward and arms dangling. Both sexes possess great endurance. They have been known to make unbroken journeys of twenty-four hours over the rough ice, and 50 to 75 miles a day without halting to sleep.

The women bear no children before 20 years of age, and are not as prolific as the daughters of the races of the more salubrious and tropical climes.

The American-Eskimos, like their Yankee fellow countrymen, are quick witted. They not only have capacity to learn the arts, but are particularly adept in mechanical appliances. They are cheerful in disposition and have the American faculty of humor and jokes even practical. They are also honest, especially when self interest is at stake, and truthful.

They show great affection among themselves and for their children, though they are stolid in sorrow for the dead. Their hospitality is universal. They also show great curiosity. They were sometimes in the beginning inclined to be insolent, but their natural inclinations and good sense turned them to friendliness.

They are not warlike, but for heroism on the sea, in pursuit of the monsters of the deep which find those frigid waters congenial to their habits, they cannot be surpassed.

They have no tribal organization. They call themselves Inuin or Inuits "People," which term they apply to the white man as well as to the Indians.

The term Eskimo, as I have said, means

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"raw fish eaters." It was at first used in derision, as "Yankee" toward the patriots of Continental days, now the synonym of the grandest manhood of the world.

They have terms indicating people of certain localities. Their villages seldom number over 150 souls, and deaths often largely exceed the births.

Point Barrow is to the Eskimo-American what New York, Philadelphia or any of the numerous cities, great and small are locally to the inhabitants of the surrounding regions. There they congregate in winter for barter with the traders and whalers, and enjoy "the social season" with their amusements.

In summer they also do as their more luxurious and opulent fellow citizens in "the States." They remove to their summer camping grounds where mountain and river game is abundant, and hunt and dance and trade among themselves and with the ships anchored in the sheltered nooks of the coast.

They barter furs of animals, large and small, land and water, and other natural products of the country, for breech-loading arms and ammunition, instead of flintlocks, formerly sold them by the British Hudson Bay Company, metal utensils and divers articles used in their limited range of the mechanic arts, also beads, tobacco and not unfrequently rum if they can get it. The textiles of more temperate zones are of little value, though bright colored handkerchiefs and blankets are sought by the women.

It is well established that they prefer to purchase all articles of American manufacture. Their dealings in early times with the British Hudson Bay monopoly were doubtless not experiences of pleasant memory.

Some idea of their primitive methods of barter, as ancient as man, may be formed of their scale of values in kind. A large brass kettle is "quoted" at three wolverine, three black and five red fox skins.

An Eskimo-American "new woman" carried on a remunerative trade by secur-

ing from the Whale and other ships, even rowing out in the waves in her kaiaak to gather them in the anchorage of the vessels, all their castaway tin cans, which she sold to her native customers at one fox skin apiece, and then bartered them to the trader at another profit.

The food of these polar citizens is also in a transition stage. They formerly and still largely depend upon the seal, walrus, whale, deer, polar bear, goat, geese, ducks, gulls, and nearly all kinds of fish and eggs of birds. Of late years they have bartered for bread, flour, cornmeal, sugar and molasses and a few other staples, their commodities with the ships along the coast or the traders.

The Eskimo-American epicure is fastidiously Frenchy in his tastes. He prefers his native fish and blubber, decayed, and oil putrid, to Chicago beef dressed, corned or otherwise, generally the latter—from the ships.

The entrails and contents of certain animals which are considered delicacies have great value in their native dietary arrangements as powerful anti-scorbutics. A sort of native tripe. This is particularly so of the rabbit entrails. The necessity of enormous quantities of fat in cold climates is an exploded theory.

As a rule the Eskimo-Americans cook their food chiefly by boiling, but not unlike many more civilized people, do not object to taking it rare or even raw. The latter in the Polar regions is a matter of convenience and often of necessity. They eat when they are hungry and enjoy record-breaking cubical and digestive capacity. It is reported that one household not very large ate two reindeer in twenty-four hours. It may be added as a compensating condition that the same household doubtless survived much longer without eating.

The women prepare the food, but that monster son of Adam always takes the best cut and leaves the rest and the refuse for his family.

The surplus food is buried in the gravel near camp and dug up when want-

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ed for winter use, although it might be a little "gamey."

The blubber is always saved for domestic and commercial uses.

The chief drink of our Eskimo fellow-countrymen and women is water in enormous quantities and very cold. In winter a lump of clean snow is always kept on a rack near the lamp with a tub beneath to catch the meltings, an example for their more civilized countrymen.

Even when the men are enjoying their open-air clubs in the summer the vessel of water with drinking bowls occupies the centre of the circle. In traveling the women often carry seal skin pouches filled with snow next to their bodies, the warmth of which causes it to melt. Their strong drink, when they get it, comes exclusively from civilized sources. Their tobacco, also, which they smoke in antler and stone pipes with willow stems, they carry in beautiful wolverine, deerskin banded pouches.

The men, women and children unite in prolonged domestic "smokers" when they can get the weed from the traders or ships.

The domicile of the Eskimo-American for winter use is the iglu, square and built of rudely fashioned wood and covered with earth to exclude the temperatures outside when far below the frozen mercury. From the outside it resembles a mound of earth.

It is entered by an underground passage, 25 feet long, 4 feet wide, 4½ feet high, closed in winter or in absence, with wolves' hide. This passage opens into the main room, which is about 14x10 feet. The floor, walls and roof are made of thick plank, dressed and neatly fitted edge to edge, with a sloping roof. A hole covered with the membrane of strips of the seal entrails sewed together and stretched over a frame, is the only aperture for light. Often the rafters are of whale jaws and ribs.

Across the rear of the room is a platform 30 inches from the ground and 5 feet wide, which slopes toward the outer

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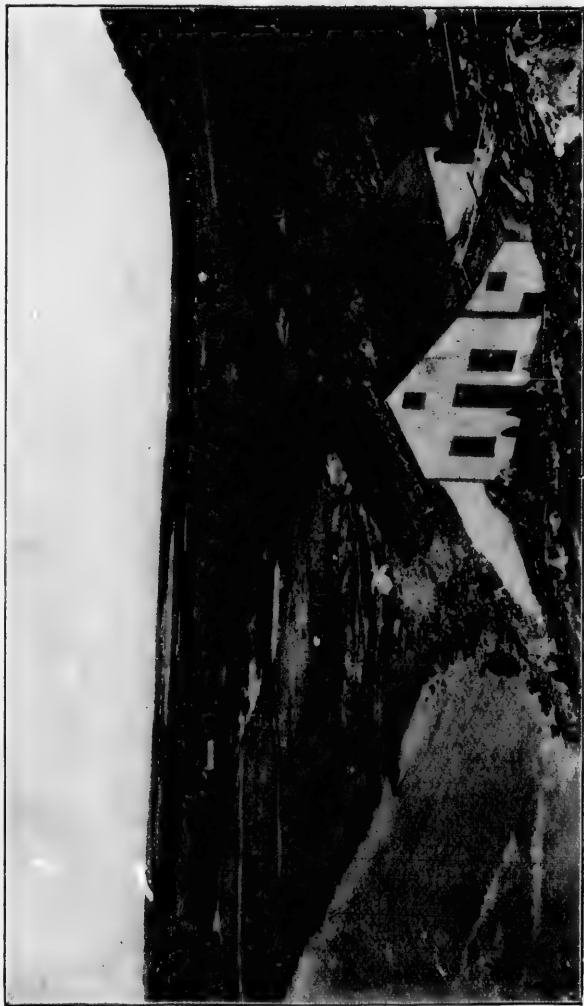
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Bering Straits, Alaska.

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wall, which is used for sleeping and lounging.

There are on the other sides racks for drying clothing, melting snow, and storage. The deerskin blankets are rolled up and kept under the sleeping platform. There are also many wooden tubs about the room used for divers purposes.

The iglu will accommodate two families. In that case each wife has her own end of the room and her own lamp and corner on the floor to work.

Everything portable outside is kept on scaffolding out of the reach of the dogs.

There is also a storehouse for blubber and often other out buildings for different uses, particularly the bath house.

The winter houses can only be occupied when the ground is frozen, as they are liable to be full of water in summer from the thawing surface.

In the arrangement of their villages the houses generally occupy hillocks near each other and all houses face the south.

They also have in the centre of the village two large buildings in common, one for a club-house, dancing, festivals and conjuring and the other for work-rooms for the men. They are usually 16x20 feet and 7 feet high.

The club-house, or ku-dygi, is of such importance that it is even hastily erected in their temporary camps. The men always take their turn in cooking, but their wives furnish the food and do the work.

The snow houses (apuya) used in hunting or temporarily, in the villages, for visitors, are much the same as the iglu, only smaller and built of blocks of snow. A beam holds the snow or canvas roof. At the south end is the long, narrow entrance. The fireplace, of snow, is 2½ feet square, with a smoke hole in the top and a stick across for the kettle. The surface melting at first takes on a coating of ice, which afterward is but slightly affected. In summer the people live in tents, formerly of deer and seal skins, but now often of old sails and canvas bought from the ships.

Their household utensils and implements of native make are of seal skins,

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wood, stone, antlers, whalebone, horn and ivory.

Their stone house-lamps or oil-burners for heating and lighting are from 6 by 8 inches to 3 by 2 feet in size and shallow. The oil is burned through wicks of moss fibre arranged around the edges and is supplied by the drippings of a lump of blubber held on the point of a stick in the wall over the flame. Two of these lamps yield but little smoke and a flame, say explorers, sufficient to read and write by and give 50 to 60 degrees of heat in the coldest weather.

In their clothing these of our people need no advice from their more elegantly dressed fellow-citizens of lower latitudes. With the mercury frozen and the temperature running riot away down to the eighties below zero they evidently know their business. The skins of the reindeer in divers stages of pelage from fetal to full grown, mountain sheep, white and blue foxes, wolf, dog, ermine and lynx skins are used for the hooded coats or parkas; eider duck for underclothes, deer skin for knee breeches and boots, inside stockings and slippers. Under such conditions these exceed cheviots and cloths, doe skin and beaver.

The women's dress is very similar to that of the men with the exception of a pocket at the nape of the neck for the head of their offspring, which they snuggle away on their backs in their fur frocks. The children also dress as their elders. The mittens worn are generally made with the fur inside. The wooden or bone snow goggles are also an indispensable article.

The clothing is sometimes attractively ornamented with bands of furs of other shades and often with belts of woven feathers, wolverine toes and porcupine quills, with ivory fasteners.

The tattooing of the women, generally on the chin, is by way of ornament. Among the men it is a mark of distinction for the number of whales taken or other acts of heroism. The hair is usually banged in front and worn long on the sides. The men wear head bands,

earrings and labrets, a stud shape lip ornament of bone or soapstone, usually one at each end of the mouth. The women wear neck ornaments and bracelets of beads or amber picked up on the beach, finger rings and combs of varied design, wrought out of walrus, ivory or reindeer antlers.

They are just as fond of and fascinating in these exterior decorations as are the daughters of Eve.

The earlier mechanical, building and skin working implements in use were made of slate, flint and whalebone, with wooden or bone hafts held by sinew or raw hide thongs, antler chisels, deer scapula saws, bone bow drills and bores and flint reamers. The natives knew nothing of metals until brought into the country by the early explorers and whalers. They are now in use when they can be had in barter.

AQUATIC ALEUTS

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XVII.

A Continued Story of Eskimo-American Arctic Life.

The Fierce Athabascan Hunters of the Yukon and Daring Thlingket Fishermen of the Archipelago.

A Native People Merging Into Citizenship.

Our fellow-countrymen from the Arctic zone of the jurisdiction of the United States still cling to one of the celebrated historical methods of slaying enemies.

Their chief weapon, rivalling Samson's famous "new jaw bone of an ass," is the jaw bone of a walrus, also daggers of bear's bone, hand clubs of whale bone, bows of sinew-backed spruce, with flinted and feathered arrows, seal skin quivers, darts, harpoons, lances of seal, whale or walrus bone, and six-balled bolas of ivory for throwing at birds.

All their weapons are used in the vocations of peace and thus far never in war.

The use of firearms was commenced after 1837, and are now common both for hunting on land and whale, seal, walrus, fishing on the sea.

They have various native appliances as decoys and floats for the chase and river

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fishing. Also a fox and wolf trap which is taking not a very fair advantage of Reynard and his carnivorous "pal," the wolf.

It consists of a piece of bent whale bone frozen in blubber. The voracious animal slyly bolting the morsel, in the course of warmth and digestion suddenly experiences the sensations of having swallowed an umbrella or to that effect. The grizzly bear, brave in romance and cowardly in fact, takes a smart pair of limbs to catch him over the ice and whines mournfully if caught in the water.

The bowhead whale of the sea rivals the reindeer of the land in usefulness to the comfort and convenience of the Eskimo-American. It furnishes food and oil for domestic uses and skin, sinews and bone useful in their domestic arts.

The pre-eminence of the whale in Eskimo economy and glory is shown by the great drumming, singing and incantation which attends the consecration of the whaling outfit to its thrilling uses.

For making fibres they use ivory shuttles, netting needles, mesh sticks, "swords;" for feather weaving, bone needles, cases, ivory thimbles and trinket boxes of walrus tusks. Their basket weaving is quite artistic.

The principal means of locomotion and transportation is the kaiak, a skin-covered canoe, 19 feet long and 18 inches wide, decked over except an opening in the middle for the man paddling it to sit in. Every Eskimo-American man or boy owns one of these indispensable craft.

The umiak, another water conveyance, is a large open skin boat, used by the Eskimos, Aleuts and Siberians in traveling, hunting or fishing. The whaling umiak is made of the bearded sealskin. The women, who are as daring as the men, usually steer the boat, and display great skill and courage. They also frequently assist in whaling and also in walrus hunting and sealing.

The land journeys of the Eskimo-American in winter are made with light and heavy sleds, the former for smaller articles and the latter for heavy freight.

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They are made of drift-wood, shod with strips of whale jaw. Some have ivory runners.

The men and women travel on foot, using snow-shoes where necessary. The sleds are drawn by dogs, ten making a large team, harnessed by means of stout raw-hide collar bands and strips. It is the practice for women to go ahead to encourage the team. Some of these animals are as large as Newfoundland dogs. In Holland it is not uncommon to see a woman and a cow dragging a plow, while her lazy "lord and master" holds the handles, and still she has no "say," as her Eskimo sister has, in affairs.

The hunting scores of whales killed and walrus and reindeer captured are always carefully kept on ivory tablets in sort of hieroglyphics. They are also quite expert in carving in ivory, soapstone and bone, figures of men and animals. The Eskimo-American is not given to gambling. There is a manly game of twisters and marline spikes, and a children's game of fox and geese.

Their festivals are semi-religious and dramatic with various costumes and appliances, dancing caps and gorgets, rattle mittens, stuffed heads of savage animals and wooden masks. The imitation of fierce animals plays an important part in their entertainments.

Their mechanical animals, mounted on whalebone, are quite remarkable contrivances. Our Eskimo citizen was in advance in this line of toy as our own are of recent date. A fox springing and a raven picking back is one of their favorite toys.

For a stolid, sedate people the Eskimo-American does a good share of singing and dancing away of the long winter nights. Their "wood" or "tree" dances last two days and nights. They are held in the kudyigi or club house, about 200 often being present in the Point Barrow native villages.

The entertainment consists of singing, usually furnished by the old men, a new use for superannuated humanity, though likely not very tuneful, accompanied by

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a tambourine-like drum, their only musical instrument, formed of membrane stretched over a hoop, with a handle, and beaten by a piece of ivory alternately on either side.

The men, women and young people join in the doleful din, going through all the motions of hunting. The men, disguised as animals, crawl on all fours, swinging their heads to the tune. Suddenly standing erect, they jump about frantically. They are not given, however, to orgies in their festival diversions.

The toys consist of whirligigs, spinning tee totems, buzz-wheels, and whizzing sticks. Many of their toys, like dolls, drum players and kaiak paddlers are mechanical and ingenious. The women are exceedingly dexterous in cats' cradle, making the most difficult figures like the reindeer. They are also expert in tossing up three balls and skipping rope.

The musical manifestations of these interesting fellow-country men and women consists of a minor chant-like monotony of sound in common time, usually sung in refrain. The voices of the young women are naturally soft and both sexes show a fondness for music.

Marriage is for companionship and generally arranged by the parents. The courtship is usually done in song. The honeymoon is passed in hunting. The children are born in the snow huts and carried under the mother's frock.

The people are naturally cleanly in their habits, although nature is very much against them. In salutation they exclaim "Nakunak" good and shake hands instead of rubbing noses.

In the healing art they practice exorcising.

After death the body is wrapped in deer skin and carried on a sled to the spot where "they sleep on the ground," with their broken instruments laid by their sides. Owing to the frozen earth interment is impracticable. The bodies are not unfrequently devoured by the dogs and foxes.

The Eskimo-American has no civil government of his own other than that time

honored institution known as "petticoat" government. His wife is not only his companion, but his counsellor in all his affairs in the domestic circle or in the frigid zone at large. Nor have they any religion entitled to be called so. They have no thought of a future, possibly owing to the imperious exigencies of the present. They have a vague idea of a Tuana, a super-natural being, with power of reward and punishment, the latter, to be sent to a distant country, a sort of Eskimo expedient applied to our home troublesome "statesman out of a job," "a consulship in a hot climate."

They wear amulets for luck. The Shamans are their medicine men and with the paramount assistance of nature often take the credit of marvelous cures.

Our Alaskan fellow-citizens of the Yukon and Copper River regions shade down from the Eskimo type to suit their somewhat modified physical surroundings. In their essential characteristics of physical appearance families, dwellings, modes of living, domestic economy, dress, ornaments, habits, manners, customs, ceremonies, industries and diversions there is very little difference. They have at times shown a warlike spirit, as in a massacre of Russians in 1848. They have the Indian faculty of cunning and locality and follow game or trails through the intricacies of the mountain with unerring instinct. Their food differs, in consisting entirely of caribou, moose and the other large and small game of the land and fish in the streams, besides the many varieties of berries and a sub-Arctic parsnip. Some of these are dried for winter use.

The moose fat, so valuable in the rude larder of these natives, is run into the small intestines of animals for preservation and transportation. Even the blood of animals is saved in the paunch.

They treat their women as drudges after they are married. A boy five years old takes precedence of his mother and enjoys with the men the "best cuts" of the meats and the choice of the domestic

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larder, of which the women take the refuse.

As a beverage they make a native tea and a drink out of lamb kill, a variety of *kalmia* which grows wild and has a decided phrenetic effect. This drink is known to the natives of the Hudson Bay and Labrador regions.

They use boats, the *Biadarra*, made of moose skin stretched over a frame fastened together by thongs, which they paddle. For hasty use they construct rafts of four logs which they punt along.

They use on land in summer women's and dogs' backs and in winter dog sleds for transportation. The men carry themselves and their weapons.

They are fond of singing and work and woo and wile away their time in song.

Their singing is said to resemble the refrains of the Apache Indians. I have heard these savages in their hunting, war and scalp dances and incantations, which consists of a minor chant-like sound with a long accent on the last syllable.

The goods of a deceased person are divided among the tribe, his late domicile is burned and his body buried. The widow may regard herself fortunate to escape the general obliteration or distribution of the departed's earthly possessions.

These people have a simple social organization. In their local assemblies the men sit according to rank, the Tyones at the head, the Shamans or Medicine Men next and the *Varsals* last, which has a rude resemblance to the earlier feudal system of the Old World.

The Aleuts still cling to many of the manners, customs and appliances in common with the other native races, but have advanced so far toward Russian methods ideas and language that they are not likely to revert to their former ways of life. They are a brave sea-faring people, adapted to the life of their mid-ocean island homes.

The Athabascans, the interior Indian race, which lives on hunting and fishing, are allied by racial characteristics to our own Apaches and Navajoes of the plains

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and Rockies, except their blood-thirsty instincts for war and cruelty.

They are known in their native tongue as Tinneh. They are a tall, finely developed, courageous and proud race and display many of the characteristics of the better type of their kinsmen across the American border.

They are chiefly engaged in fishing and hunting. They consider it a disgrace to kill a black bear, the fiercest of the family, with powder and ball. When they encounter "Mr. Bruin" in the forest, they accordingly boldly attack him with a knife. These deeds of prowess are greatly esteemed among their people.

The Athibascans are a polygamous race having several wives. Infanticide is also very common. They deposit their dead in boxes above the ground.

Their habits and modes of life partake more of the barbarous than of the savage state.

They have had for years more or less contact with the stations of the Hudson Bay Company and latterly with the gold miners of the Yukon and its American and British tributaries.

The Thlingkets and their kindred, the Timpseans and Haidas are comprised in ten tribes and dwell on the islands and main land of Southeastern Alaska.

They are a vigorous, athletic, industrious and shrewd people. Their primitive habits are gradually giving way to American modes of life. Their chief employment in their native state is hunting and fishing. They have long lived in a rude way after the manner of the Russian, former possessions. They seek occupation in daily employment.

As packers they are of great value to the prospectors and miners in the present stampede over the severe coast range portage to the Yukon route to the glittering tributary streams in Alaska and Klondike.

In the early days of their known history they were of a warlike spirit. Their name then was a terror alike to the half-civilized Aleut and the predatory Tinneh.

TIME'S SCORE

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XVIII.

A Chronological Narration of Alaskan Events.

The Rivalry of Nations for the Wealth of the Arctic.

An Ignominious Surrender Which Time and the People Will Amend.

The Alaskan Step to the Music of the Union.

During the earliest period of discovery and exploration (1492-1500) on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the North American continent, Jasper Cotereau (1500) sailed into the Hudson Bay, thus entering the northwestern water passage between the eastern and western shores of North America.

Balboa (1513) venturing inland upon what happened to be the narrow stretch of territory which connects the three Americas unexpectedly sighted the waters later known as the Pacific.

Magellan (1520) passed from ocean to ocean in the extreme south, through the strait which bears his name.

Cortez (1521) fresh from his conquest of Mexico, under the directions of his imperial master, ventured across the Pacific to the Indies and discovered for Spain the archipelago of the Philippines.

The alluring fields of the Asiatic orient

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diverted attention from the less inviting regions along the opposite shores of the Pacific.

Cabrillo (1542-3) explored California and other parts of the Pacific coast.

Drake (1578-80) also visited the northern waters of the same ocean.

The harvest of trade in the east and the attempts at colonization in the west so completely absorbed the attention of the maritime nations of Europe that the waters of the North Pacific were left in solitude for nearly two hundred years.

The activity of Peter the Great of Russia (1724) and his imperial widow, Catherine, (1725) aroused fresh interest and rivalry in that region.

The policy of Peter and Catherine then has been the statesman-like policy of the Russian rulers since. I have spoken of this in the international story of "An Alaskan Romance," and the thrilling experiences of Vitus Bering 1728-30 and 1732-1741 in the narrative of "Alaskan Discovery."

The immense value of the fur trade of the region which found a profitable market in China and Russia and other countries of Europe, stimulated Russian occupation of the territory greatly to the uneasiness of Spain and her colonies along the shores of the South Pacific from Terra del Fuego to Mexico. England, then a formidable competitor for supremacy in the commerce of the high seas, also displayed concern.

It was this uneasiness which sent Captain James Cook (1776-8), an Englishman, to the Pacific, visiting our own Hawaiian Islands, the coast of our own Oregon and northward along our continental shores to Mount St. Elias, and around the present Alaskan peninsula into Bering Sea and through the strait to Icy Cape, terminating his adventurous career in a fatal quarrel with the natives of Hawaii.

The voyage of Cook unfolded to geographical science the vastness of what is now Alaska.

The Russians, the rightful possessors by title of discovery, were not slow to

avail themselves of the knowledge thus acquired. The furs and fish of the Aleutian Islands had long engaged the attention of their traders.

The more systematic methods now proposed led to the organization (1781-3) of a trading company with their chief station on the Kadiak Island, in New Russia, an admirably chosen strategic point for either commercial or warlike purposes.

From this island headquarters the Russian dominion spread to the islands, peninsulas and mainland as the interests of the imperial jurisdiction and trade demanded.

The fur trade of Kadiak became renowned throughout the civilized world. A few years later (1786) an English trading vessel appeared in Alaskan waters.

About the same time American trading vessels from Nantucket, New Bedford and other ports of the Atlantic carried the flag of the United States, then but just born into the family of nations, into those remote waters.

This was followed by exploring expeditions, notably French (1786, La Perouse,) English and Spanish, doubtless more as spies upon Russian designs in that quarter of the globe than in the interest of science.

An imperial ukase (1787) directed the occupation of other points and the mainland as a precautionary step against the machinations of other nations.

It was reported (1788) to the Spanish Government that there were eight settlements in Alaska west of Prince William's Sound on the mainland east of the Kenai Peninsula with a new station then recently established at the mouth of Copper River, east of that sound.

There were also reports of contemplated Russian projects further south in territory claimed by Spain, and also the proposed occupation of Vancouver Island at Nootka Sound, on the ocean side.

These movements were under the direct orders of the Russian Emperor.

Pending these misunderstandings with

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Spain (1786) British merchants trading in the West Indies, under the plea of Cook's voyage, located a settlement under British auspices at the proposed Russian station, at Nootka, in order to supply the Chinese market with furs. The fur trade with China had been established by the Russians years earlier.

The survivors of Bering's disastrous voyage having reached the Kamtchatkan coast clad in the furs they had taken from the seal and seal otter, aroused the commercial spirit of their countrymen. Expeditions for more extended exploration and trading were at once sent into these undiscovered seas, over twenty years before Cook's visit and resulted in the Kadiak and other settlements.

The ports on the mainland of Asia, Avatscha and Ochotsk were the depots for the overland supply of furs to the Chinese market until the sea route, then unknown, became revealed to Russian traders.

The presence of foreign vessels in suspicious numbers and the attempts to share the brisk and profitable trade in furs led to commands (1787) from the Emperor to occupy the mainland.

The Spaniards made a reconnoissance from their Mexican colony the following year (1788) touching at Kadiak and Unalaska and not only reported many settlements in New Russia, but advanced pretensions to the exclusive jurisdiction of the western shores and islands of the Pacific. In reply to a remonstrance the Spanish Government was requested to mind its own business, as the Russian traders were acting under imperial orders.

Although war was threatened the attention of Spain was diverted in a new direction.

The Spaniards, dissatisfied with the Nootka settlement by the English instead of the Russians, captured (1789) the British ships and traders at that point. A general war was averted by a convention (1790) according free commerce to both nations.

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Harpooning the Whale—Alaskan Waters.



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The region east of the present international longitude 141 west was brought within the bounds of geographical knowledge by the explorations of Alexander Mackenzie (1787-91-92) from Atlantic waters to the mouth of the great Polar river which bears his name and also an overland journey to the Pacific.

The infant Republic of the West as we have seen early entered actively into the rivalry of nations for the valuable trade of the coasts of the North Pacific Ocean.

Before Captain George Vancouver, who had been the English Commissioner in the Nootka negotiations, cruised (1792-4) along the coasts north of the Spanish possessions of California, American traders were engaged in a lively exploration and barter among these same islands and on the mainland and waters thereto adjacent.

The Russians, who were the foremost and most fearless, with the Americans, in these regions were indebted (1790) to Shelikoff, one of their traders, for organizing the then valuable trade of the North Pacific coast and islands.

Under the authority of the Imperial Government the company bearing his name was granted a monopoly of the trade.

It was not long (1792) before Alexander Baranoff, who had been in charge on Kadiak Island under Delareff, the previous chief, found himself at the head of affairs. This energetic functionary became as much of an autocrat of all Alaska as the Emperor himself was autocrat of all the Russias.

An attempt to form a settlement of convicts and monks on the mainland near Mount St. Elias proved a failure.

Two years later (1795) another attempt was made on Yakutat Bay.

The imperial government about the same time chartered the Russian American Company for 20 years with exclusive franchises north of the parallel of 55 degrees north. This superseded the former Shelikoff Company. Baranoff was placed in control of the Russian Company.

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This enterprising official erected (1799) a fort on a sheltered bay on the ocean front of the island in Southeastern Alaska, which to-day perpetuates his name. This port he named in honor of the archangel Gabriel.

The trump of trade soon attracted American and English vessels to the new post. The great convenience of the location, geographically, a few years later (1804), led Baranoff to transfer the headquarters of the colony from St. Paul, on Kadiak Island, to the new settlement, to which he gave the name of New Archangel.

The difficulty of communication with Russia, which required transportation thousands of miles across Siberia by the slow appliances of travel then in vogue and many more miles by ocean by the lagging sailing vessels of the day led the quick-witted Baranoff (1810) to make an arrangement to obtain food supplies from an American settlement at the mouth of the Columbia now in Oregon, established in that year, which received the name Astoria. This settlement, under the auspices of John Jacob Astor, of New York, was renowned in those days of the fur trade.

A short time after Baranoff acquired a tract of land in California then owned by Spain, on Bodega Bay, north of the site of San Francisco Bay. There he erected a fort and stationed a colony of agriculturists to raise cattle, grain and vegetables for the Russian-American settlements.

After a long period of active service, Baranoff having retired, a new governor of the German name Hagenmeister was placed over the affairs of the Russian Company.

The Russian-American possessions now began to assume sufficient importance to attract more of the attention of the Government at home. The management of the company under the somewhat high-handed methods of Baranoff led to reforms which, however, were short lived.

At this time (1819) there were four or five stations on the Aleutian Isles and

seven on the main land and islands on Cook Inlet, Chugach Gulf and Baranoff Island, the latter being the capital.

During the governorship of Muravieff, which began in (1820) the Imperial Government in 1821 issued a ukase not only claiming all the region north of the 50th parallel, but extended the franchises of the company for another term of twenty years.

The extension of the Russian boundary so far south called for action on the part of the United States, which Government had acquired that coast from Spain in the purchase (1820) of the Territory of Florida. That region had very rambling lines of boundary. Beginning on the Atlantic and Gulf of Mexico, it stretched across the continent and was only limited by the Pacific Ocean in the far northwest at the mouth of the Columbia River, now in Oregon.

The difference, however, was peacefully adjusted, as had and always has been the fact in negotiations between the great Republic of America, and the great Empire, of Europe and Asia.

The divisional line between the Russian and American possessions on the Pacific by treaty (1824) was located at 54 degrees 40 minutes. Under this instrument both nations had the freedom of trade along the entire coast.

The treaty of 1825 between Russia and England made the same arrangement as to boundary and trade.

The strip between the Spanish Florida purchase by the United States and the Russian possessions gave rise to a long and acute controversy between the United States and England.

This culminated for the time being (1846) in a disgraceful and universally condemned, patched-up arrangement between the United States and England establishing the 49th parallel north as the northern limit of the United States, instead of permitting England to enjoy the assumption of the line of 54-40 as the northern limits of her possessions in that quarter toward Russia.

One of the ablest statesmen of the United

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States characterized this make-shift as the most ignominious compromise that has ever disgraced the annals of American diplomacy. This infamous surrender contrary to the oft-repeated friendly intimations of the abler and more far-seeing Emperors and statesmen of Russia to the United States to close up its possession to 54-40, having fixed the line at the 49th parallel left an open cause of international irritation which sooner or later in the development of the United States' Pacific commonwealths will unless adjusted lead to a third war with England, with more disastrous results to the latter power than it experienced in 1776 and 1812.

The chief director, Chistkoff (1825) abandoned New Archangel as the capital and returned to the original headquarters of Russian operations at St. Paul, on Kodiak Island.

Baron Wrangel (1831), the new governor, however, restored New Archangel to the dignity of the seat of administrative authority.

The Russian-American possessions also ceased (1833) to be the dumping ground of criminals and convicts, the territory being thrown open to all Russian subjects for colonization.

The affairs of the Russian possessions in America gave increasing dissatisfaction to the Government. In the meantime the region was being explored and mapped and trading stations were erected at convenient points.

The whale fisheries in those Arctic waters, which were inaugurated by the Americans in 1848, at once assumed astounding dimensions and increased the friction growing out of the management by the Russian company.

At length affairs assumed a crisis which resulted (1862) in the Emperor refusing to continue the charter, which, having been renewed in 1844, would expire in 1864.

In this condition matters went along in a state of official suspended animation until Makoutoff, having been named (1864)

Imperial Governor, arrived in the colony and assumed direction of affairs.

This efficient officer was still in the exercise of his duties when the Imperial and United States Commissioners and troops arrived at the little capital, New Archangel, in October, 1867, to consummate the treaty of cession by the transfer of the territory.

The interesting story of this event is told in this volume under the caption "Unfurling the Flag."

Upon the acquisition of the territory by the United States the capital on Baranoff Island, under its Russian occupants known as New Archangel, became Sitka in name, and continued in the distinction of being the seat of Government under the new jurisdiction.

Having thus succinctly traversed the long period of Russian history, it may be added in continuation, under United States authority. The Russian population in 1867 comprised simply the officers and traders about 590 in all most of whom were half-breeds. The Greek Church, by authority of the Emperor, had established mission stations and schools for their own people and the natives.

The United States Government, after the transfer, stationed a detachment of United States troops at New Archangel, then named Sitka, and retained as the capital.

After repeated efforts on the part of the Americans in the territory to secure a form of civil government in 1881, the convention of Juneau sent its representative, M. D. Ball, to the National Capital to urge its claims to proper legislation.

It was not, however, until May 17th, 1884, that the bill presented by United States Senator Benjamin Harrison, became a law and the organic act of Alaska.

The district was provided with a few necessary administrative privileges, including civil, judicial and customs officers and a resident commissioner for each of the chief towns, all appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. The former Russian capital, New Archangel, was continued as the capital under

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the name Sitka. The laws of Oregon, administered by an Oregon judge, were declared the laws of Alaska.

There were also many details protecting the vast timber and mineral lands from spoliation, regulating the number of seals killed under the terms of contract with a private company, and prohibiting the sale of spirituous liquors.

In 1888 the precedent of admitting delegates from Alaska to seats in national political conventions was established by the Democrats, which was also adopted by the Republican party.

The Juneau convention of Republicans of 1889 chose Minor W. Bruce to present the claims of Alaska to more elaborate organic legislation to Congress.

The census of 1890 showed a white Indian, Mongolian, mixed blood total population of 32,043. The expansion of industry also presented further claims to consideration.

Notwithstanding the rapid development of the seal, salmon and other fishing, and gold and other mining industries, the growing trade in articles of export and import and the consequent influx of population, naturally some of a very restive character, Congress continued its policy of neglect and indifference to the affairs of Alaska.

The year 1897 found an abnormal condition of affairs in the rush to Alaska and Klondike gold fields, the latter on foreign soil. The law-abiding, orderly instincts of the American citizen alone enabled civil government, industry and trade to pursue their primitive way without a reiteration of the scenes of lawlessness which attended the first flush of the gold craze in California.

The exigencies of the new condition of things were met as far as practicable by departmental orders, acting under Executive authority.

The demands of "Greater Alaska" are being met as the sealed book of the mysterious future opens its pages to a wondering world.

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Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XIX.

**The Quaint Russian Capital of
Our Vast Alaskan Domain.**

**The Growing Towns of the Future
Archipelago "State" of South-
eastern Alaska.**

**An "Icy Wilderness" in Debate Trans-
formed Into a Realization of Human
Habitations and Increasing
Wealth.**

The logical arrangement of the distinctive physical characteristics of Alaska, into six geographical areas, suggested by Ivan Petroff, United States Treasury expert in that region, has been described under the caption "Alaskan Possibilities."

I shall now observe the same arrangement in the grouping of Alaska towns and trading posts.

The official maps of Alaska portray an amount of geographical detail which must surprise even an otherwise well-posted American citizen. Alaska is not the vast unknown wilderness which many of our people are even at this remote day in the habit of unthinkingly believing, from the contemporaneous talk of inglorious croakers of the Fortieth Congress, the pro-British influence and lobby of political bummers then so rife.

The term "Alaska," in the vernacular of the early native races, means "Great

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Land." And so it is, but there is before us in this age of progress and utilitarian enterprise a "greater Alaska." That vast region is dotted with located settlements and native hamlets from the fighting parallel 54-40 to Point Barrow and from the 10 marine league line and 141 meridian west, to the extremity of the Aleutian Islands, where the west is transformed, by cosmic science, into the east.

Our concern in this connection is with communities and minor settlements established in the interests of civilization and its varied activities.

In Southeastern Alaska, described under "Alaskan Possibilities," Sitka was not only the earliest Russian station in that mysterious portion of the globe, but it is to-day the American capital.

If it were possible to look in upon the Battery end of the Island of Manhattan at the time when that famous puffer of pipe smoke, Wouter Van Twiller represented their "High Mightinesses the States General" in the gubernatorial office of New Netherlands, we would find ourselves in the midst of a town which would in a measure suggest the Sitka of to-day.

The earlier community was the capital of the Dutch possessions in North America which then included both the North (Hudson) and South (Delaware) rivers as Sitka is the capital to-day of the North-western corner of the North American continent, a much more vast region in extent under the Dominion of the United States, then unborn, and which now has jurisdiction over all.

It is not said that the commercial and political metropolis of Alaska will rival in population or wealth the great metropolis of New York. But I do say that over two and a half centuries of progress produces great changes in towns as well as in human affairs generally, and that Sitka now is more important than the "Knickerbocker" capital was in the age of Van Twiller, or even the redoubtable Stuyvesant.

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Indeed, we may look upon Alaska as an object lesson in the small beginnings of the maternal "Thirteen," in the middle of the sixteenth century and with possibilities no less remarkable in undeveloped natural wealth.

Our miniature sub-Arctic capital, nearly 6,000 miles away from the seat of national Government, was located at the heart center in the anatomy of a region then aspired to by at least two nations of Europe besides being held by its rightful possessor, Russia.

It was also a large field of American enterprise when the mighty Republic of the West was in its swaddling clothes.

The original settlement of which Sitka of to-day is the American successor, was located by the sagacious first Governor of the Russian-American Fur Company, Alexander Baranof, after the abandonment of the previous Shelikoff Trading Company, which had established its headquarters at the town of St. Paul in the northeastern corner of Kadiak Island.

It began as a Fort with a name suggestive of futurity and fame no other than Archangel Gabriel. This was erected in 1799 on a picturesque harbor on the western or ocean shore of an island, which to-day perpetuates the name of Baranof himself.

This island is one of the score of romantic spots of terra-firma which jut up on picturesque superfluous of Mother Earth's bosom above the indigo waters of the encompassing deep, and constitutes one of the group known as Alexander Archipelago, after that Emperor of glorious memory.

The island itself is 100 miles from north to south along Chatham Strait, on the land and the Pacific on the oceanward side and 20 miles in width. This would give it an area within 50 square miles of the size of the State of Delaware.

The American and English vessels which traded in that quarter of the globe conducted a profitable business in food supplies, for the post, which consumed a

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great length of time in reaching them from home.

In 1804 Archangel Gabriel, that is the Fort, expanded into a settlement which received the appellation, New Archangel. The all-powerful Baranof then abandoned St. Paul on Kadiak Island as the chief office of the company and capital of New Russia, and located both at the new town in Southeastern Alaska.

It is interesting to know that the American Fur Trade settlement, Astoria, at the mouth of the Columbia River in the present American State of Oregon, which received its name from John Jacob Astor, of New York, its sponsor and proprietor, was in intimate commercial relations with the Russian colonial capital. An agreement had been arranged between the Astoria settlement and the Russian Governor to furnish the posts of New Russia with food supplies. With a similar end in view the Russians acquired a tract of land on the California coast, about 45 miles north of the present city of San Francisco, named Bodego Bay. They built a fort called Ross and there raised cattle and cultivated grain and vegetables to supply their posts.

It might be added that this tract was sold in 1841 to Gen. John A. Sutter, who had made several cruises in Alaskan waters. It was also on this tract that gold was discovered by General Sutter in September, 1847.

In 1817 Baranof resigned. In 1825 the seat of colonial authority was restored to St. Paul. There it remained until 1831, when Baron Wrangell returned it to New Archangel, which since has remained the residence of the Russian and later, under another name, of the United States Governors.

Upon the transfer of authority from Russia to the United States the formal ceremonies took place at New Archangel, and were heralded to the world through the trumpets and guns of the Archangel Gabriel—fort. Thenceforward Archangel Gabriel became but a memory and Sitka became its successor in name

WONDERLAND

and authority by act of the Congress of the United States, 1884.

The sturdy little capital, nestling at the base of bold mountain heights, occupies a stretch of low level land on the western shore of the island looking out upon Sitka Sound. Mount Edgecumbe, apparently not many ages ago a participant in volcanic activity, rears its rugged crest opposite the town on the small island of Kruzof, 2,800 feet, United States Coast Survey measurement above the ocean at its base.

The little capital itself lies on parallel 57.05 North, longitude 135.17 West.

The harbor is one of the finest on this ocean front of North America. With lofty Edgecumbe as its landmark it is easy of approach and entrance by mariners.

At the time of the transfer the United States came into possession of a number of log structures occupied by the Russians for official and domiciliary purposes.

A log building erected in the great Baranof's day of early Russian occupancy, known as "Baranof's Castle," about which were associated so many scenes and incidents of the weird years of isolation from the outer world, occupied a commanding bluff overlooking the quaint old Russian town.

This Russian "castle," a relic of imperial days was destroyed by fire March 17, 1894. It had just been repaired by the United States Government at an expense of \$10,000 for a court house, and would have been, but for this disaster, an interesting relic for years to come.

The other early buildings which have survived the tooth of time and tongue of flame are still utilized and are interesting on account of their quaint architecture.

Besides being the seat of district government, and therefore the residence of the Governor and other chief officials, it is also the chief port of entry of the customs district of Alaska, with a number of sub-ports of entry transacting official business with the department at Washington through it.

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It has a post office, as have all the white settlements in Alaska, with extensions to keep in touch with the advance of civilization and spread of development. It is also a money order office and a station of the United States Weather Bureau service. It has two government schools, with over 200 native scholars. It has been an important center of evangelical missionary labor, especially under the Presbyterian denomination since 1878.

The Cathedral of St. Michael, of the Holy Orthodox Catholic Apostolic Oriental Church and the Church of the Resurrection (the Kalochian) are interesting relics of the imperial dominion.

It is one of those admirable traits of American womanhood that the mothers, wives and daughters, like their Continental mothers of old, in their sphere of influence take an active part in the responsibilities of American civilization and institutions.

During the days of American military occupancy the ladies of the families of the officers on duty at Sitka gave their time to teaching in extemporized day and Sabbath schools for the children of the natives and even for adults, and maintained sewing schools for women and girls.

Not insensible to this interest, the brave and gallant commander, Lester A. Beardsley, then in command of that venerable "Tub" of our ancient navy, the Jamestown, on duty in Alaskan waters, and as a pleasant realization now rear admiral in command of the Pacific fleet, fitted up an unused hospital for a school.

In 1880 Commander Henry Glass, U. S. N., another splendid type of the American hero of the deep blue sea, aided in the establishment of a boarding department to the industrial school, which the United States Government enlarged in 1884. He also characterized his ingenuity in the ways of peace by introducing in 1881 in the Alaskan capital less primitive sanitary arrangements. He also became a public benefactor by applying the shrewd scheme of tying a tin label to the waists of the native children of the town and or-

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dering their arrest if found on the streets without that appendage during school hours. The "Glass tin system" of apprehending school truants might be adopted with success in more extended municipal areas.

In the same year the first Presbyterian Church was organized with 44 natives and 5 white communicants. In that year their boarding school for girls at Fort Wrangel was removed to Sitka.

Since then the little capital has been the focus of political, educational, religious, industrial and business activity in Alaska.

The chief industry is salmon fishing and curing. Gold in small quantities has also been found not far distant. Recent reports give accounts of very important discoveries.

It is also in communication with the outer world by steamer and sail. Lines of fleet steamers ply between the Sitka docks and San Francisco and other points on the Pacific coast and in Alaskan waters.

It is 1,647 miles from San Francisco by the inland passage for steamers and 1,296 by the outside ocean route used by steamers and sailing vessels of great tonnage.

It is 1,278 miles from Unalaska, the strategic port in Alaskan waters.

The population of the little capital under the census of 1890 was 1,190. This number has largely increased during the time which has elapsed since.

The mean temperature at Sitka over a period of 43 years was January 31.4 degrees, August 55.9 degrees.

The celebrated Senator Charles Sumner in his Alaskan speech before the Senate of the United States, in 1867, made "note on't" that the climate of Sitka was milder than many European capitals, citing Berlin, Vienna, Copenhagen and Turin. He might have added that its mean temperature under the influence of the Kiro Siwo, or black stream of Japan, was about the same as that of Washington, the American capital. But those were days when the American people frequently had a

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ducking for want of a Weather Bureau to tell them before hand w(h)e(a)ther they were "hot or cold," when to rummage around for their "parapluies" and when it was not safe to forget them.

The official mean annual rain fall, scientifically called precipitation, is practically a deluge. It footed up an average for 33 years of 84.06 perpendicular to one horizontal square inch. This, may it be added, is just sufficient if collected and held in solution to require bathing suits or arks for every man, woman & child in town, exotic or indigeneous, seven feet in height, standing on the minus the space between the apex of the cranium and the nasal and mouth vents to the windpipe, highwater mark.

About twelve miles from Sitka are a cluster of sulphur iodine springs which possess superior healing properties. They have been resorted to for many years by invalids. It has been proposed to have the Government make a reservation out of the region so that the waters may be held for the use of the people as are the Hot Springs under Government supervision in the Ozark Mountains of Arkansas.

About ten miles from the mouth of the Stickine River, on the northern shore of Wrangel Island, in latitude $56\frac{1}{2}$ north and longitude 132.28 West, is the busy little settlement of the same name with "fort" prefixed, which gives a peaceful community a warlike fame.

In the census of 1890 it bobbed up with 316 inhabitants. The census of 1900 is likely to multiply that number by two or three figures at least. It is a mail distributing point for a number of offices in Alaska and British Columbia. It has a well attended Government school and was the birthplace and cradle of the efficient missionary work of the American Presbyterian Church in Alaska, beginning with the Tsimpeean natives of this region in 1877.

In 1878 at a convention of natives presided over by Mrs. A. R. McFarland, of

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the mission work, a native police force, the first in Alaska, was organized.

A building was also erected to protect girls sold by their parents. In 1878 Rev. John G. Brady here performed the first christian ceremony of marriage among the Alaskan natives.

Fort Wrangel is also the starting point of miners and traders by the Stickine route to the gold diggings on British soil, along its own bed and to the headwaters of the Yukon for Alaskan and Klondike fields.

The Stickine River is also associated with the earliest American enterprise in this region, having been discovered in 1802 by the Captain of the American trader Atahualpa. In 1833 the Hudson Bay Company was detected in a scheme to take possession of the river. Baron Wrangel, then Governor, as a check, established a fort called Dyonesius at the river's mouth, which was afterward called by its present name.

The Hudson Bay Company, although taking exception to this movement were satisfied to lease the fort.

On the west side of Admiralty Island, on Chatham Strait, leading direct to Lynn Canal, is Killisnoo, a small trading station. It has a Government native school and a Presbyterian and Greco-Russian mission. It has also in its vicinity traces of coal of commercial value in quality and quantity.

Instead of that water highway from Frederick Sound taking Stephen's Passage on the right we reach a young and enterprising city in pioneer par'ance, but rapidly expanding into municipal proportions.

The city of Juneau, for that is its name, was not known to compilers of maps a few years ago. To-day it is prominent in the list of Alaskan communities and perpetuates the name of Joseph Juneau, a pioneer prospector.

It is situated on the mainland on the shore of a strait which connects Stephens Passage with Lynn Canal and ten miles north of the mouth of the Taku River in latitude 58.19 north and longitude 134.28 west.

It is the starting point of the Taku

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River route to the Alaskan and Klondike-Yukon gold fields, the details of which will be reached in the orderly progression of our entertaining narration. It has a money order post office, two Government schools and is a sub-port of entry.

The city of Juneau is one of the most "up to date" of our pioneer Alaskan cities.

In 1895 it made decided strides. Many fine buildings were erected, wharves extended, hotels built and municipal conveniences of water works and electric lights introduced. In 1890 it had 1,253 inhabitants, being the largest town in the whole region. It has also kept pace with the rapid increase which is going on in the population of Alaska.

It has also been honored by several territorial conventicles, notably one in 1881 to secure a civil government for the district and in 1889, which sent a delegate to Washington to secure from Congress additional legislation. It has a Presbyterian and Roman Catholic mission.

In every sense Juneau seems destined to keep pace with the inevitable development which awaits Alaska in the near future.

The well grown village of Douglas on the island of that name, opposite and a few miles below Juneau, had a population of 402 souls when heard from officially in 1890. It is an international post office where mails brought in on the decks of steamers from the ocean or on the backs of men and dogs or sleds from the inland are distributed for their foreign and domestic destinations.

It has a Government school and a Quaker mission. The main importance of the place is the celebrated Treadwell gold mine located at this point. The quartz mill in use is said to be the largest in the world. The company are keeping pace with modern town improvements as their enterprise extends.

Hoonah, on the icy Strait coast of Chichagof Island, is a place of trade with the Hoonyah natives. In 1878 a Presbyterian missionary visitation was made

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among them by Rev. John G. Brady. It became a permanent establishment as Boyd in 1881. There is also a Government school of 150 scholars.

In the vicinity are excellent springs of healing waters. Their inaccessibility alone has been the drawback to their enjoyment by invalids. With the increase of facilities for travel the hot springs of Hoonah are likely to be heard from. Another small station, Haines, situated on the west shore of Chilkoot Inlet, a continuation of Lynn Canal, on the right, has a Government school and a Presbyterian mission among the Chilkoot natives. A Chilkoot village is on the same shore ten miles above to the left.

Shkagway, or Skaguay for short, as its orthography is fast being Americanized, at the confluence of the Dyea Inlet, the continuance of Chilkoot Inlet and Shkagway River, and Dyea, further up on the Dyea Inlet, at the mouth of Dyea River, less than ten miles distant, are situated at the starting points of the traders and miners for the Alaskan and Klondike-Yukon gold fields by way of the two most used portage routes from tidewater to the head tributary of the Yukon.

The route by Dyea leads into the Chilkoot and that by Skaguay into the White Passes, both coming together over the coast range in Tagish Lake on the other side about fifty miles from either starting point.

Leaving Chilkoot Inlet on the right and passing up Chilkat Inlet on the left, we reach Katkwalto on the right and Klukwaar five miles above at the mouth of Chilkat River.

These are the starting points to the Chilkat Pass, Lake Arkell and Tahkheena River route, which joins the Chilkoot and White Pass routes beyond the coast range at Fifty-Mile River on the way to the Lewis-Yukon Rivers.

The Lynn Canal leads up to all these points above Juneau.

The Presbyterians established in 1881 a mission among the Hydah native villages on Prince Wales Island and another in 1882 at Howean (Jackson) on the

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south end of the same island. This native settlement is near the initial corner mark of the international "fighting" 54.40 boundary parallel, and the first American territory reached after leaving the strait of Fuca in the American extreme north-western State of Washington.

The scenery is mountainous along this entire coast and remarkably grand.

On the left of the entrance to Lynn Canal is Icy Strait, leading to the wonderful Glacier Bay, less than fifty miles across country from Lynn Canal, directly over Snow Dome and the famous Muir Glacier which I have described.

Between Glacier Bay and the ocean coast, not over forty miles distant, are the four Fairweather Range peaks, Fairweather, Lituya, Crillon and La Perouse from 10,740 to 15,900 feet in height, rising majestically in sight from the ocean on the west and Glacier Bay on the east.

The most northern settlement of Southeastern Alaska is Yakutat, on the southern shore of the bay of that name in the very heart of the marvels of glacial action. In 1890 the settlement had 308 inhabitants. It has a Swedish Evangelical mission and a Government school.

The station was first established by the Russians in 1795, and was one of the earliest occupations of the main land.

Across the bay is the celebrated Malaspina ice sea, with Mount St. Elias, the birthplace of glaciers and one of the eternal corner points of international boundary, about seventy miles due north. In the background of Yakutat on the same side of the bay rises the towering St. Elias range of mountains and the vast sweep of morainal deposit-buried forests and other glacial wonders of Alaska.

The region is now the resort of summer tourists and will be more so as communication is increased and cheapened.

An American Alpine chalet accessible from the steamers and equally so to the wonders of Malaspina and St. Elias, for the accommodation of daring mountain climbers and wonder-seeking summer tourists a few years ago an idle dream a few years hence will be a remunerative realization.

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Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XX.

**Between the Orient and Occident
of United States Domin-
ion the Sun Never Sets.**

**A Mid-Ocean Strategic Key to
Three Seas.**

**St. Paul the Early Russian Outlook on
Pacific and Polar Waters.**

**Other Alaskan Towns With Large In-
terests.**

The vast range of longitude covered by United States dominion may be judged by the astronomical fact that when the sun is setting at Attu, our westernmost island in the Aleutian chain in the Pacific, it is rising over Deer, our easternmost island off the Atlantic shores of the State of Maine.

It can be said that the sun never sets, but always smiles upon the soil of the United States.

If my highly respected readers have hitherto thought that the many localities noted on the recent maps of Alaska are simply for embellishment and stand for nothing beyond the merest specks of human habitation in a mighty wilderness, they might prepare themselves to revise that impression.

I have spoken of the possible common-

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wealth of Southeastern Alaska and the quaint capital, Sitka. We will now proceed on our ocean voyage, on paper, 1,278 miles due southwest.

At the end of our journey we find ourselves at the Aleutian metropolis, Unalaska, locally known as Iliuliuk.

We have reached the capital of the mid-ocean member of the group of probable Alaskan Commonwealths of the next decade or two.

This interesting locality lies in the midst of that succession of insular stepping-stones under United States dominion, known as the Aleutian Archipelago, which extends across the head of the Pacific Ocean almost to within sight of the Kamtchatkan Coast of Russia.

The Aleutian outstretched geographical division is not only one of the most wonderful, but one of the most promising sections of Alaska. Its wonders are the sub-marine range of mountains, lofty volcanoes and lakes of sulphur, which I have described. Its enormous wealth is in the valuable fur seal, salmon and other fisheries, gold, forests, coal, minerals and metals, which I shall soon recount.

There are many settlements on the different islands. The inhabitants, the Aleuts, are an aquatic race, their industries being entirely in pursuit of the sea otter and other fur-bearing animals of the deep.

One of the largest of these islands is Unalaska. Its chief town, also called Unalaska or Iliuliuk, is situated on the northeastern or Bering Sea side of Iliuliuk harbor. It lies at the northern outlet of Akutan Pass, which, with Unalga Pass, unites the waters of the Pacific Ocean on the south and Bering Sea on the north. On the east side of these passes is Akutan Island.

This pass is one of the water routes through the Aleutian chain from the Pacific Ocean to the Pribilof Fur Seal Islands, which lie within the 100 fathom curve to the northwest.

The scenery is magnificent. The Makushin Mountain lifting its summit 5,500 feet out of the blue ocean in sight on one side and Akutan, 3,900 feet high on the

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other. They stand like two mighty sentinels at the portals to the Bering Sea.

The safest passes, however, through the islands are Unimak, 80 miles to the northeast and Amukhta, 280 miles to the southwest.

The natural stronghold commanding these passes is, therefore, Unalaska, the strategic position of our vast sub-Arctic possessions. It not only controls the ocean gateways to the Bering Sea, which is practically an American and Russian lake, but it holds the same relation to the northern waters and shores of the Pacific Ocean.

Its admirable geographical position, strategically considered, is better appreciated when we look at its central location in miles with reference to the widely extended areas of our North Pacific possessions.

It is 1,278 statute miles southwest of Sitka, the chief point in Southeastern Alaska. It is 1,346 miles south of Point Barrow, the chief point in the Arctic division, and 900 miles east of Attu, the extreme western island of the Aleutian chain.

It is 2,369 miles from San Francisco and less from Portland and Seattle on our Pacific Coast.

With respect to Alaskan points, it is 770 miles southeast of St. Michael, holding the key to the commerce of the Yukon; 484 miles southwest of Mt. Carmel, on Bristol Bay on the north side of the peninsula of Alaska; 461 miles southwest of Quinhahaha at the mouth of the Kuskokwim River; 816 miles south of Cape Prince of Wales on Bering Strait; 800 miles south of Port Clarence, the United States Reindeer Station; 600 miles southwest of the celebrated salmon canning islands of Kadiak and Afognak, and east of south of the Pribilof Fur Seal Islands St. George 222, and St. Paul 271 miles.

This port was prominent in Russian days. In 1788 the Spanish vessels during their reconnoissance of the Northern Pacific waters visited Unalaska. The result of that cruise was some friction with the Russians on account of alleged aggressions of the latter Power.

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The present town with about a thousand inhabitants has a Custom House post office, Greco-Russian Church Mission, Government school, trading houses, fine wharves and an excellent harbor.

To the eastward on Unga Island, in the Shamugin group, south of the peninsula, there is a village of 200 inhabitants. At Sand Point, on that Island, the Methodists have established a mission and the Government a school. At Belkofski, on the bay of that name on the southwestern end of the Alaskan Peninsula, is a village of 300 inhabitants and a Greco-Russian church mission. At Protassof is a village of 100 souls. There are warm sulphur springs and ponds nearby.

On Unimak, of the Fox Islands, the seat of two of the loftiest volcanoes in Alaska Shishaldin and Pogromnoi is a settlement of 127 inhabitants at Nikolasky on the south side.

On the east end of Atkha, one of the Andreanof Islands, is Nazan, a thrifty settlement of 230 natives.

On the Island of St. Paul, of the Pribilof group, is a settlement of 298. This is in the midst of the immensely valuable fur seal rookeries.

Still farther to the eastward lie the Island of Kadiak and Peninsulas of Kenai and Alaska, which constitute the Kadiak geographical division. This is one of the sections referred to, which possess extraordinary "Alaskan possibilities."

St. Paul, on the northeastern end of Kadiak Island, was founded by the Russian government in 1781 as a point of observation upon the vessels of other nations resorting to the North Pacific seas on pretext of exploration and trade. It was made the capital of New Russia and was the headquarters of the Shelikoff Trading Company organized in 1790. The Russian-American Company chartered in 1799 with the famous Alexander Baranof as chief director and ex-officio Governor, also had its chief office there until Governor Baranof built Fort Archangel Gabriel on Baranof Island in Southeastern Alaska which five years later he made his capital.

The seat of government upon the retire-

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ment of Baranof returned to St. Paul, but after twenty-one years was again removed to New Archangel. It was again taken to New Archangel in 1831 and has remained there since. The population of St. Paul in 1890 was 1,100.

The trade of St. Paul is not alone confined to the enormous output of canned salmon, but is also largely in furs. The central location of the town with respect to both these valuable industries gives it great importance in that region.

The Island of Kadiak, of which St. Paul is the metropolis, is 90x45 miles, or 4,050 square miles in area or nearly as large as the State of Connecticut. It lies east of the main land end of the Alaskan Peninsula, 40 miles distant. Its shores lie along the famous 100 fathom curve, which begins near the Alaskan Gulf Coast at St. Elias Range and sweeps westward to the Fox Island in the Aleutian chain. Midway in the succession of immensely valuable fishing grounds are the Portlock Bank on the north and Albatross Bank immediately east of the island, with Shumagin, Sonnak and Davidson Banks in succession to the westward. These banks rival the celebrated fishing banks of New Foundland in productive value.

On the island are some of the most extensive salmon canneries in the world.

Karluk, on Shelikoff Strait, on the western shore of the island which separates it from the Peninsula of Alaska, was established in 1887. The pack in the first year was 13,000 cases of salmon. In 1888 101,000 cases of forty-eight pounds each were turned out, representing a catch of 1,200,000 blue backs or red salmon. In 1889 more than thirty new canneries were established at this one point, turning out that year 350,000 cases of red salmon, representing 4,000,000 fish. This will convey some idea of busy Alaskan towns, even if their populations are small.

Karluk at present has the largest cannery in the world, and yet the population is but 1,123.

At Kadiak another fishing station on the island there is a population of 495 souls, also largely engaged in salmon

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packing. It also has a thriving Government school.

Alitak, in the south of the island, on the bay of the same name, has a population of 420 also engaged in fishing and canning.

There are other fishing villages on the island.

Across Afognak Bay and North Strait, which separate Afognak, an island of considerable size, from Kadiak on the north, about 25 miles distant, is situated the village of Afognak, with a population of 409 souls, mostly engaged in salmon catching and canning. The island is 633 miles west of Sitka and has a Government school.

Almost due west of Sitka, 650 miles across the head of the Gulf of Alaska, on Hinchinbrook Island, stands Nucheck. At one time it was a trading station of leading importance, but in the shiftings of commercial conditions lost much of its prominence.

The island upon which it is situated is at the entrance to Prince Williams Sound and 50 miles from the mouth of the Copper River.

As the Copper River region is again attracting the attention of scientific and practical prospectors for auriferous wealth, it is likely that Nucheck will be heard from again in the future.

The Kenai Peninsula, which geographically belongs to the Kadiak division, projects into the Alaskan Gulf between Prince William Sound and Cook Inlet. It is one of the localities of interest in the earlier operations in Alaska, being just north of Kadiak Island, the site of St. Paul the first Russian settlement in the region.

The chief trading post is Kenai, on the Cook Inlet, or western shore. It was the site of the first settlement in that region, is the residence of a Russian missionary and has a Greek Church. It was fortified, redoubt St. Nicholas being its reliance against any warlike demonstration. At the time of the transfer to the United States the stockade and bastions

with their armament of 1½ pound falconets were still in place.

Near Anchor Point on the north and Port Graham on the south, entrance to Kuchekneck Bay in the southwestern corner of the peninsula an abundance of coal crops out of the cliffs. A Russian company with interested San Francisco parties exploited the veins to furnish steamers with a convenient supply, but the project was abandoned largely on account of the limited demand at that time.

On the opposite shore of Cook Inlet are Toyorok and West Foreland respectively, on Trading and Redoubt Bays. The Sushitna River finds its outlet in the inlet and therefore the inducements of trade with the natives.

The resident Creoles have made headway in raising turnips and potatoes, keeping cattle and making butter. They are also engaged in catching and salting salmon for the San Francisco market. The value of the fur trade has somewhat diminished.

Kenai is a great place of resort for the natives on the shores of the inlet, who congregate there once a year to receive the good offices and benediction of the Russian priest.

In Russian days gold was reported near the station, but a costly experiment elicited insufficient returns. The American prospectors have also been unsuccessful.

The station at one time enjoyed a considerable trade in bricks, which were made there and sold to the other posts for constructing the heating oven so common in Russian household appliances.

About 30 miles below Kenai is a settlement, Ninilchik, of the descendants of the former "colonial citizens" an honor by way of epithet conferred upon the superannuated employes under the Russian regime.

They have established a large trade in turnips and potatoes and are equally successful in raising pigs and poultry, which, however, are unpalatable on account of feeding upon the refuse of the sea.

The Kuskokwim geographical division

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has a few native settlements which are visited each season by the traders. The region is comparatively low and consists of extensive plains. The interior has not been thoroughly explored. The natural resources are therefore not known. The river abounds in salmon.

At Quinnehaha at the head of Kuskokwim, at Bethel, at the mouth of the river and at Mt. Carmel, at the mouth of the Nushagak River in Bristol Bay, the Moravians have established missionary stations among the natives. At Bethel and Carmel there are also Government schools. Higher up the Kuskokwim the Russian and Roman Churches have missions among the natives. In 1818 the Russian Korsakoff made an overland journey from Cook Inlet to the mouth of the Kuskokwim. The same year he built a fort (Alexander) at the mouth of the Nushagak, on Bristol Bay, and two years after more fully explored the Kuskokwim.

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Alaskan Mining Regions, Upper Yukon.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXI.

The Mart of Yukon River Trade and Metropolis of Icy Polar Regions.

Our Land of Noonday Night and Midnight Sun and Birthplace of Blizzards.

'Old Glory' Waves a Greeting to the North Pole.

I have spoken of our archipelago and mid-ocean towns let us look into the mysterious interior along the mighty Yukon, a Wonder of Rivers, and the frozen coast facing on the north polar hub of our revolving globe.

The Yukon geographical section is the most extensive in area and important in present and prospective development in Alaska. It possesses in itself among the greatest of "Alaskan Possibilities" notwithstanding the rigors of its climate. A description of the Yukon will be found under the head "A Wonder of Rivers."

The chief mart of commerce and trade on the river is St. Michael on the island of that name near the south shore of Norton Sound. It is also prominent in the commercial operations with the straits and polar settlements of the Arctic division,



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being midway between Unalaska and Point Barrow.

The great companies of ocean and river transportation and trading establishments of San Francisco, Portland, Seattle and other points on the American Coast have their branches at this point with fine warehouses.

In the prosecution of trade in this sub-Arctic region each station superintendent of the interior descends the great river with the earliest movement of the ice in the latter part of June. The superintendent at St. Michael furnishes him with his allotment of goods suitable to the trade white or native in the region which he covers. These he carries back with him in sailboats or biadarkas (mooseskin boats) to his post and are supposed to cover a year's supply. Frequently several trips are made during the open season of about four months.

The enormously enlarged demands of the rapidly increasing population of gold miners and prospectors along the coast has changed this tedious primitive method of distributing supplies along the Yukon River stations. The fleets of steamboats constructed for Yukon navigation are now utilized.

The vessels with supplies from the home houses owing to floating ice in Norton Sound and in the straits between St. Lawrence Island off the mouth of the Yukon delta, are unable to reach St. Michael before the end of June.

There is also a shorter route which some day may have its line of trolley or steam railway from St. Michael direct to the Yukon not only saving the circuitous route but the discomforts of 73 miles on Norton Sound in a river steamer before entering the mouth of the river.

By this cross-cut route a boat from St. Michael along the south shore of the inner Norton Sound would convey passengers or merchandize 55 miles to the mouth of Unalaklik River to the town of that name, where a Swedish Evangelical Mission has been established. Thence ascending the river 14 miles to Ulukuk village; thence by trail 32 miles to Autokakat River; thence down that stream three miles to

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the Yukon, makes a total of 104 miles, which is 392 miles from the mouth of the Yukon. The distance from St. Michael to the same point by Norton Sound and River is 465 miles.

It is not difficult to determine what may happen there when trade becomes permanently established. Lieut. Allen, United States Cavalry, during his reconnaissance of Alaska, made the overland journey and reports it "officially," feasible.

The Yukon is 2,043 miles long through the Lewis and 3,200 through the Pelly head tributaries and is navigable 1,600 miles, and by canoe the entire distance.

The navigable waters of the main stream and its tributaries are approximated, not extravagantly, between 4,000 and 5,000 miles by light draft steamers and double that for canoes, which are the popular conveyance of the country.

The Lewis River, which is the water and transportation outlet of the chain of lakes at the inland end of the Chilkat, Chilkoot and White Passes, represents 375 miles of canoe navigation and the Pelly 550 miles. The entire Yukon system, as I have said, drains 600,000 square miles.

The emporium of the Yukon River trade, St. Michael, was erected as a fort of that name in 1833 by Tebeneff, who had made important expeditions on Norton Sound as a base of future operations and trade.

The town occupies one of a small group of islands, owing to the unfavorable coast of low delta deposits and shallow waters, 73 miles north of the principal mouth, that being the only safe anchorage. It is the harbor of transfer of passengers and freight from the ocean going to the Yukon River steamers and smaller craft.

St. Michael controls the trade of the entire Yukon system and for that alone is destined with development to be a city of considerable size. It also occupies a position of strategic importance as regards Bering Sea. From the latter point of observation by ocean it is 770 miles northwest of Unalaska; 250 miles southeast of Cape Prince of Wales in the Bering

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Strait, and 780 miles by way of Bering Strait south of Point Barrow.

Its commanding position as regards the river, measured in miles, according to Raymond, is from the anchorage off Redoubt St. Michael to Pikmatalik 27 miles. From Pikmatalik to the Aphoon or northern mouth of the Yukon 46 miles. From Redoubt St. Michael to Fort Yukon, 1,039 miles. From the Aphoon mouth of the Yukon to the Crater Lake source through the Lewis River, according to Schwatka, who made an exploration of the entire length of the river, is 2,043.5 miles. The Russians were the first explorers of the delta and the river.

In making the ascent of the Yukon, we reverse the details of the descent of the stream which I have given in "A Wonder of Rivers." At the entrance of the Aphoon mouth stands the native village of Kutlik.

At the junction of the delta mouths in the stream inland stands Kusilyak, with a Roman Mission. A short distance, 7 miles, is Coatlik, and farther above is Andreanof, with a Russian Church Mission nearby.

There are other villages along the lower river. Anvik, at the mouth of the river of that name, is the first station on the river, nearly 200 miles above its mouth. Here the Eskimos appear; also geese and sedge grass. About 40 miles below is the Holy Cross Mission of the Protestant Episcopal Church.

Nulato, 467 miles from the sea, which had been built during the directorship of Kupreanof, was held for a year but was abandoned and destroyed by the natives. In 1841 it was again built but was captured and burned in 1851. In 1859 it was rebuilt. It is now a Roman Catholic station. At this point the river turns almost east to Nowikakat, nearly 200 miles farther, which was first located in 1843. Nuklakayet, the next trading post, is 201 miles above Nulato in the depths of the Yukon region. The region abounds in huckleberries in summer.

After passing Tukluckyet, Tanana and the Lower Ramparts the steamer enters the Thousand Isles of the Yukon, which

is there 10 miles wide. Crossing within the Arctic Circle on that line at the confluence of the Porcupine River stands Fort Yukon, 966 miles from the sea and 73 miles further from St. Michael. The post has had an interesting history. It was erected in 1847-8 by McMurray, of the Hudson Bay Company, who supposed the site to be on British territory. The Porcupine River was also explored by him.

During the governorship of Furujelm, which began in 1860, Major Kennicott, 1861, completed the exploration of the Yukon, having made the descent of the stream.

In 1865-7 the Western Union Telegraph Company completed a series of surveys to locate a telegraph route between the United States and Europe through Alaska and Siberia. Though the project was never consummated, these explorations were of great value. They covered the length of the Yukon. In 1866 the entire length of the river from the lakes to the forks of the Yukon and Porcupine were re-explored by Kennicott, Lebarge, Ketchum, Lukeen and others.

In 1869 Captain Raymond, U. S. A., located the post on United States soil, 490 miles below Fort Selkirk. It was abandoned in 1880 and Belle Isle and Fort Reliance were established.

At Fort Yukon the river takes a southeasterly course to Circle City.

This town in 1896 had a gold mining population of 1,800 people. Town lots it is officially reported were selling for \$2,000 each. The discoveries in the Klondike in a few days almost depopulated it.

The next station further up the river is Belle Isle, where there is a United States post office.

A few miles beyond the Yukon crosses the international meridian 141 degrees west and enters the present British northwestern territory. On the international line is Buxton, the seat of a church of England mission.

About 100 miles above Belle Isle is the British town of Dawson, the chief town of the Klondike gold region. The Yukon thence continues to its source on British Canadian soil.

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On St. Lawrence Island in the Bering Sea, about 200 miles due west of St. Michael and about the same distance opposite the entrance to Bering Straits, which it commands, dwells a branch of the Eskimo or InnuIt race of Alaska. They are described by the early explorers as the finest types of the Innuits, brave and hardy, the Vikings of the Bering Sea. But a few years ago they numbered 800 souls. They carried on a brisk barter of furs, ivory and whale bone gathered in their perilous ventures in the waters which encompassed their ocean island home. Civilization and its concomitant in the amelioration (?) of aboriginal races—rum speedily accomplished its work. In a single year 400 starved to death from the consequent abandonment of their ocean pursuits of the monsters of the great deep through indulgence.

On the main land, across the opening of Norton Sound, within 50 miles of the entrance to Bering Straits in latitude above 65 degrees, is Port Clarence. Its chief importance is as the reindeer experiment station under the authority of the United States Government, represented by the Bureau of Education. There are several of these stations along the coast near Cape Prince of Wales.

The fine harbor of Port Clarence affords safe anchorage for whaling ships to await their tenders before passing the Bering Straits into the Arctic Ocean.

It was from this point that the United States Government reindeer relief expedition started over land across Western Alaska a distance of 600 miles with supplies for the relief of American whalers caught in the ice and threatened with destruction or starvation.

At Cape Prince of Wales, 530 miles from Point Barrow, the extreme western point of the North American Continent on Bering Strait, the Congregationalists have established a mission.

South of Cape Prince of Wales, on Kings Island, is a settlement of cave dwellers.

This wonderful locality is a great mass

of basaltic rock, rising almost perpendicularly out of the straits to a height of 700 feet. A settlement of Eskimos or Innuits have excavated their dwellings out of the rock about 200 feet above the ocean surf.

When these daring men wish to put to sea they descend as near the surf as possible. The native takes his seat in his kajak, when two of his companions toss his kajak with him in it over the cliff and clear of the surf.

The chief industry of these strange people is the manufacture of waterproof boots from the skin of the throat of the seal. It is said that they are superior to rubber. Their rain-proof coats are called kamilekas.

On the rugged peak of terra firma called Diomedé Island, which lies in the middle of the Bering Straits, is a settlement of 300 Innuits, whose chief occupation is smuggling. They carry on a brisk trade in their little walrus skin boats (biadar-kas) with Russian-Siberia, exchanging deer skins, sinews and wooden ware of Alaska for walrus ivory, tame reindeer skins and whale blubber of Siberia. Also firearms and the apparent handmaiden of civilization—whisky.

The international ocean meridian, 169 degrees 30 minutes, takes its bearings in latitude 65-30, a little south of this island and thence proceeds due north without limitation into the frozen ocean, and from the same point proceeds southwest, thus forming the international divisional line between America and Asia and United States and Russian jurisdictions.

The Arctic or sixth geographical division of Alaska, also described in our "Alaskan Possibilities," lies entirely within the Arctic Circle. Its surface consists of frozen moors and snow masses and has been but little explored. Its wealth is in the ocean waters along its shores.

In climbing up over the flattening cap of this world "of ours" on the American Eagle's side of the Bering Strait we cross Kotzebue Sound, once a celebrated whaling ground, and reach Point Hope, with

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a settlement of 301 and an Episcopal mission. This polar point was occupied before 1853 and has a native village bearing a native name meaning the inhabitants of the forefinger, which conveys some idea of the peculiar topography of that Arctic coast.

We thence pass Cape Lisburne and Icy Cape and finally reach Point Barrow, the American town of the Land of the Midnight Sun. In 1826 a Captain Beechy cruised along the Alaskan coast as far as Point Barrow. The coast between the Mackenzie and Point Barrow was explored as early as 1837. The Polar, Bering and Pacific coasts of Alaska are now completely mapped and marked.

Point Barrow, the most northern habitation of the white man on the mainland of the American continent along the shores of circumpolar waters lies in latitude 71 degrees 22 minutes North and longitude 156 degrees 17 minutes West. It was established by the United States on its own soil as a rescue station for the large fleets of whalers which visit that portion of the Arctic Ocean in pursuit of the seal, walrus and whale. It is within 25 miles of being the highest point on the mainland of the American Hemisphere.

The Eskimo town of Nuwuk (the Point) stands at the extreme end of Point Barrow and at the extremity of the cliffs, is the native town of Utkiavwin, the beginning of the highland at Cape Smyth, 17 miles southwest.

The coast in this icy region consists of steep banks of clay, gravel and pebbles, with every indication of glacial drift. There are frozen rivers which drain the summer meltings of ice and snow and frozen lagoons. The thawing before the frozen ocean cuts some mighty and fantastic figures in the efforts of the great volume of unloosed waters to break their borean bounds.

Near Cape Smyth a cliff 25 feet high and rising beyond a broad lagoon, Isutkwa, spreads an elevation but 12 feet above the frigid waves of the sea. In former days it was the site of a village. To-day

in those frozen winds borne down from the northern pole of the earth floats the flag of the Republic over the United States signal station of Ooglaamie, which we Americanize as Point Barrow.

The region round about is desolate in the extreme, consisting of vast reaches of beach, lagoons, sand spits, bays and a few turf covered knolls. Upon one of these knolls stands the United States Eskimo Arctic town of Nuwuk. The population numbers about 250 souls.

The country for at least 50 miles around is filled with fresh water lakes, and then rises into increasing mountain heights until we reach southward and inland the lofty summits of the Yukon and the Porcupine, cross country 300 miles distant.

The landscape around Point Barrow is reported "officially" as very closely resembling the treeless drift hills of Cape Cod.

The ground never thaws beyond two feet. Beneath that the ice king holds the earth in his perpetual grip for an unknown depth.

In the vicinity of this polar United States "official" and native settlement are several rivers of considerable dimensions and a great fresh water lake, Tasyukpun.

The climate of this region is entirely arctic, being in mean temperature 8 degrees, Fahrenheit, with a range from minus 65 to plus 52 degrees as extremes. The usual winter temperature is minus 20 to 30 which merges insensibly into summer in June with "cold snaps" and frosts by the beginning of September.

This is our land of the Midday Night and the Midnight Sun in all their solitude and glory. At point Barrow for 72 days in the winter, beginning November 15th, the sun is entirely below the horizon and is only visible by refraction a few days at the beginning and at the end of this period.

The same interesting phenomena in the procession of seasons of alternating solstice darkness at noon and sunlight at midnight, also exists at Hammerfest, Norway, the northernmost town in

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Europe, and has been referred to in "Climatic Alaska."

The sun at Point Barrow, as at Hammerfest, being just below the horizon, there is a wierd twilight from 9 A. M. to 3 P. M., which is utilized for outdoor employment.

In the summer there is an equal period when the sun continually above the horizon never sets, and for a month before and after this period there is twilight sufficiently bright to extinguish the visibility of the heavenly planets.

The winter snow fall is light, probably a foot on the level, but owing to the terrific winds is piled up in great drifts, which begin to melt early in April. The grass begins to show its verdant color in June and the arctic flowers are abloom.

The winter weather is usually clear and excessive cold is seldom accompanied with high winds. Gales have occurred with winds 100 miles an hour.

The most enjoyable portion of the year is "officially" reported to be from the middle of May to the end of July, when the sea opens and before the foggy and cloudy weather sets in.

The fresh water ponds freeze about the end of September, when the natives begin their sledge journeys and fish through the ice of the inland rivers.

The sea is permanently closed from the middle of October to the end of July. It is also covered with floating masses all summer.

The grounded heavy ice forming about 1,000 yards from the shore causes a "barrier" or "landfloe" of high broken hummocks, inshore the sea freezing smooth.

The heavy pack has been known, under the pressure of westerly winds, to be pushed very suddenly over the "barrier" and high up on the beach.

Outside of the land-floe the ice is broken pack, with hummocks of old and new ice driven about by every wind, the intervening open water freezing 6 inches in 24 hours.

These drifting masses sometimes move

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away with the pack, while portions crush in, crumbling the new ice into atoms.

The separation between the fixed land-floe and the moving pack varies from 4 to 8 miles.

After the gales the motion of the pack ceases until the middle of April, when the easterly winds cause leads to open. As the sun rises in the horizon in July the whole ice scene moves off with the pack.

In the midst of all this scene of icy desolation an annual fair is held by the Eskimo in summer at the mouth of the Colville River, about 200 miles east of Point Barrow, which is attended by the native races for hundreds of miles along the shores of the Polar Sea and the interior of Western Alaska.

It is the United States Arctic rendezvous where our hyperborean fellow-citizens of this mundane hub gather to barter their goods and exchange the news of the North Polar circle and of the effeminate zones of the crust of the earth.

AGRICULTURAL ALASKA

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXII.

A "Howling Wilderness" Dawning Into Millions of Wealth of Soil and Forest.

The Reindeer Herders of Arctic Plateaus Rival the Cowboys of Western Plains.

"Official" Anticipations of An Eruption of 200,000 Fortune Seekers.

A Mid-Winter U. S. Military Reindeer Relief Train for Polar Shores.

The arability of any given portion of the earth's surface does not necessarily mean success in the culture of the staple products of cereals, cotton or cane.

If that be the interpretation of agriculture then the New England States are a waste.

In three of these States, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, the quantity of wheat raised is not even sufficient to be made a matter of statistical computation. In the other three, with a population of 3,400,000 inhabitants, the total of bushels in 1895 was but 217,000. Pennsylvania alone, with all her mines and manufactures, raised 21,000,000 bushels. In corn and oats the New England aggre-

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gate is larger, but still comparatively small. Nor are the Rocky Mountain States, as the saying goes, "in it." When you come to wool, tobacco, apples and suitable products New England takes a front rank.

There are but ten States in the Union which raise cotton, and yet the output per annum exceeds 10,000,000 bales.

There are other things in Alaskan agriculture not dreamed of in the pessimistic echoes of the Congressional croakers and their friends of 1867.

The Church has stood in the advance in efforts to exploit the country and ameliorate the condition of the native.

Nicholas Rezanof, writing from Kadiak in 1805, officially quoted by John G. Brady, Governor of Alaska, in his report of 1897, mentions experiments in 1795 by monks on onions, turnips, carrots, mustard, poppy, tobacco, potatoes, cabbage, cucumbers, watermelons, radishes, beets, peas, beans, corn, sun and other garden flowers.

Out of this toothsome array of esculents and succulents, the potatoes, radishes and turnips, the latter sometimes weighing ten pounds, produced fine crops. The others grew rapidly, but did not mature owing to early frosts.

In 1804, 4 pounds of barley seed realized 60 pounds. During these same years large quantities of potatoes raised by the natives of Killisnoo, Hootznahooof and Kake, on the Islands of Southeastern Alaska, were used at the Russian posts.

On the Kenai Peninsula at the earlier settlement of that name, the Creole or half-caste Russian inhabitants, since the United States jurisdiction, have been cultivating potatoes and turnips on a large scale.

About 30 miles below, along the coast a settlement of "Colonial citizens," an empty distinction accorded the superannuated former Russian subjects, was established by Imperial orders about 1837. The descendants of this remnant of Russian rule established at Ninilchik, are raising sufficient potatoes and turnips for themselves and to supply at good profits the traders and fishermen.

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These people have even ventured with success into an incipient dairy industry. The Alaskan cattle, fed on the grasses of the Cook inlet shores of this expansive peninsula, afford rich milk, out of which the native women make butter by the simple process of shaking the cream by hand in bottles.

They are also successful in raising pigs and poultry. These four-footed and feathered representatives of farmyard industry keep sleek and fat on clams, kelp and fish bones yielded by the fruitful tidal waters of Alaska, which, however, does not improve the flavor of the flesh.

The cultivation of potatoes and turnips on the Alexander archipelago, the shores of Cook Inlet, Kenai Peninsula, Kodiak Island, Bristol Bay and Afognac Island is a fixed industry, tracts as large as 100 acres being planted. The usual planting season, begins in May and gathering in October.

Rear Admiral Beardslee, U. S. N., during his cruising in Alaskan waters, said officially that whether due to the clearing away of the forests or improved methods, he was not prepared to say, but he could say as to results that in the neighborhood of Sitka and Wrangel excellent vegetables were being raised and their cultivation was increasing.

He reported two seasons in succession when he saw growing around Sitka varieties of lettuce, cabbage, a yard across in leaf, and with heads 8 and 10 inches in diameter; cauliflower, weighing from 10 to 15 pounds; early rose and peach-blow potatoes from 3 to 30 ounces each, and hills yielding over half a bucketful, each; turnips, cress, radishes, green peas of excellent qualities, radishes and gooseberries.

Lieut. Allen, U. S. A., reported "officially" that lettuce, radishes, turnips, beans, peas, potatoes, carrots and possibly buckwheat and barley can be raised in favored localities on the middle Yukon and Tanana. The short summers are hot, reaching a known temperature at times of 112 to 115 degrees. The humidity, however, is not so great as on the coast.

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The soil of Western Alaska does not thaw in summer below a depth of two feet, which, however, does not necessarily interfere with the growth of certain crops, provided the surface conditions are correct.

It is the general conclusion of experts that with the loosening of the ground by cultivation and proper drainage, this depth of thawed surface will be greatly increased.

The topography of the arable parts of Alaska consists of rolling and rather rocky hills, and extensive plains, often marshy along the rivers. The character of the soil in some places is clay, especially in the colder latitudes, where sphagnum grows best. A large expanse is also light and sandy.

Other vast expanses at the mouths of the river are the richest alluvial of mud, vegetable deposits and sand to great depth.

The belt of frozen sub-soil does not extend below 8 feet.

The raising of live stock has been a more perplexing problem. There is an abundance of nutritious pasturage in Southeastern Alaska, on the Kenai Peninsula and Kadiak and other Aleutian Islands upon which cattle have grown fat.

The climatic conditions of excessive humidity, protracted and depressing, cloudy and foggy weather, prolonged winters and the prevalence of storms of sleet and snow and cold from October to May, causes havoc among live stock, notwithstanding ample quantities of food.

The Alaskan mutton is prized by competent judges for its fine flavor, but long confinement under close shelter in sleety weather causes sweating and other difficulties conducive to disease or decline in fat.

Alaskan cattle and sheep, however, will constitute an important factor in the annual food supply of the Pacific shores. It is a practice which has been growing from year to year to ship cargoes of cattle and sheep from California and pasture them upon the fattening grasses of the Aleutian Islands and Kadiak and beyond,

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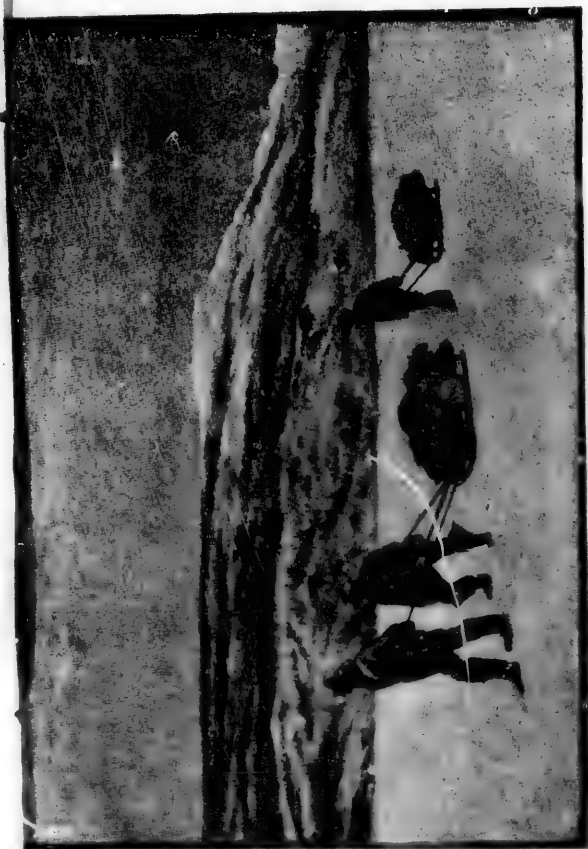
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Gold Miners on Their Way to the Yukon.



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until fall when the sleek animals are slaughtered and dressed for the Pacific Coast markets.

By the middle of October the animals are in prime condition. The American hog also thrives.

The transfer of the "concert" of Europe into the "bedlam of Asia" will give rise to an immense demand for agricultural products from agricultural Alaska and our Pacific shores as well.

The horse, so much reduced in prestige by steam and electricity in settled parts of the country, finds his rival in the canoes and native biadarkas of the waters, the backs and muscles of men and dogs and in the immediate future vastly more so in the invaluable reindeer.

The "noble animal" has no economic value in Alaska. This may also be said of the "facetious" mule. All attempts at their utilization have been unsuccessful.

The most interesting and important problem in the pastoral branch of Alaskan agriculture is in the introduction of the European and Asiatic reindeer as a food supply and an adjunct to inland travel and transportation during the long winters.

This problem, which will play such an important part in the United States' share in the development of the regions along the North Pacific littoral, presents another object lesson of the sovereign people being in advance of their representatives in Congress. The destruction of the food supply of the Eskimo-Americans by the infernal appliances of wasteful destruction incident to modern enterprise, necessitated a speedy substitution for whales, seal, salmon, oil, blubber and game and other sources available in barbarous days.

The Protestant, Russian and Roman missionaries, in the absence of consideration from the servants of the people in Congress, promptly took the matter into consideration.

Dr. Sheldon Jackson, United States General Agent of Education, acting under the Office of Education at Washington, D. C., first "officially" suggested the experiment.

After vainly endeavoring to interest the

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Fifty-first Congress in giving the utilization of the reindeer a trial as a food supply for American citizens deprived by the much vaunted enterprise of the day of their means of support, this gentleman appealed to the generous heart of the unpaid sovereigns of the land through the missionary boards and public press.

The Scandinavian press embarked heartily in the project. The Mail and Express, of New York; the Transcript, of Boston; the Ledger, of Philadelphia; the Inter-Ocean, of Chicago; the Star of the city of Washington, and the leading religious papers of the land also extended a supporting hand, until \$2,156 were speedily raised as a free-will offering to commence the experiment.

This fund was converted into merchandise for barter with the natives of Siberia, notably: Guns, Ammunition, Traps, Hardware, Flour, Provisions, Cotton Goods, Tents, Dishes, Beads, Trinkets and Tobacco.

Through the assistance of the Scandinavian papers of the United States a suitable person, William A. Kjellmann, of Madison, Wisconsin, was secured to take charge as superintendent of stations. A native of Finmarken, Mr. Kjellmann had herded reindeer in his native land until 22 years of age. Afterwards he was employed as an expert in buying and selling reindeer and reindeer products, a most important item of commercial and economic value, of which we citizens will learn with interest in the future.

In 1891 a small herd of reindeer, purchased in that year, were liberated on the Aleutian Islands of Unalaska and Amaknak. They not only prospered, but were often seen on the mountain sides fat and contented. There were 20 reindeer purchased in that year at \$180.90.

In 1892 Dr. Jackson visited the head of Clarence Bay to find a suitable station for future operations. The chief points of consideration were proximity to Siberia, the source of original supply, safe harborage for landing and communication, centrality for distribution of supplies and

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herds, abundance of sphagnum pasturage and fresh water.

These requisites were found in the old Russian Bay, Kavaijak, but a few hours steam from Siberia, explored by Beechy, an English naval officer, in 1827, and named Port Clarence, after the Duke of that name, afterward George IV, King.

The bay, 12 by 14 miles, affords the best harbor on the American side of Bering Sea. It is the rendezvous of the whaling fleet in the beginning of July to take in supplies of fresh water and to await the provision ships from "the States." The region in the vicinity also affords nutritious grass resembling blue joint.

At the extreme northeastern corner of the bay, upon a small mountain stream, headquarters are located. The flag of the United States was unfurled to the arctic breeze and a rifle salute was fired in its honor on June 29th, 1892, at 10 A. M.

A few miles east had been the headquarters of the Russian-American telegraph expeditions of 1865 and '67.

The station was named after Henry M. Teller, of Colorado, Secretary of the Interior, who in 1885 authorized the establishment of the common school system of Alaska provided for by the United States Congress and for his vigorous support of the reindeer problem.

In 1892, 171 reindeer were purchased from the natives along the opposite coast of Siberia for \$623. The first herd was purchased by the Government from these private funds.

It was proposed to distribute the herds among the missionary stations, giving 100 head each to the Congregationalists at Cape Prince of Wales; the Swedish Evangelical Church at Golovin Bay; the Presbyterians at St. Laurence Islands, and Romanists on the Yukon. With the increase of the herds other religious denominations were to be similarly supplied if they so desired.

This policy has been carried out among the arctic religious stations and has been attended with great success, both for food, domestic use and transportation.

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The landing of these herds carried on the swift wings of hyperborean breezes brought eskimo natives from as far as 500 miles to see the strange animals. They promptly besought herds for themselves, offering to pay for them in barter. It is proposed to distribute the animals among the natives as soon as practicable.

Parties were also sent to Lapland to contract for Lapps with their dogs trained to herding the reindeer, to be used as instructors of the Eskimo-Americans.

After the experiment had been made an assured success Congress in 1893-4 appropriated \$6,000 for the purchase of reindeer, erection of buildings, securing appliances and employment of necessary trained men and apprentices. The reindeer experiments in Alaska have received national recognition by the hurried purchase of foreign animals and the equipment of a large military reindeer sledge train for the relief of the sailors of the arctic whaling fleet caught in the ice of the Polar Sea beyond our Arctic Alaskan possessions. By no other method known to human ingenuity could have been accomplished or even made possible the humanitarian movement in the depth of an arctic winter.

The reindeer may now be accepted as an established factor in Alaskan economy and enterprise. The long fibrous white moss covered plains of Alaska will now be brought within the realms of economic value. The explorations show an inexhaustible supply of reindeer food, superior to that found in Siberia.

On the basis of the reindeer statistics of Norway or Sweden, it is estimated that fully 9,000,000 of these animals can flourish in Arctic and Sub-Arctic Alaska. This would furnish food, clothing and transportation for 250,000 inhabitants. As to the economic value of the reindeer compared with any one of our domestic animals, it might be said in the language of the day that the latter are "not in it."

The flesh is a delicacy whether fresh or cured and surpasses venison or beef. The

untanned skin furnishes the best clothing for low winter temperatures. When tanned it is unsurpassed for the book binder, upholsterer and glovemaking, being soft and strong.

The hair is unequalled for life saving apparatus, being buoyant. The horns and hoofs, converted into glue, is the best in the market.

It is not improbable that Eskimo and other Americans will ere long develop a reindeer industry which will rival in millions, proportionate to the area utilized, the enormous cattle raising industry of Texas and the plains.

Saddles and haunches of Alaskan reindeer, with winter temperature and quick transportation, will be for sale in the markets of the larger cities of the States.

As to the reindeer itself, it is found in the arctic and sub-arctic regions of Asia, Europe and America. The American reindeer seems incapable of domestication. The fur is a seal brown. Some have large white spots among the deep brown.

To the Laplanders the reindeer represents wealth.

Its value is that of the horse, cow, sheep and goat of mild latitudes combined.

A full grown animal can draw 500 pounds on a sled. As a "roadster" it will surpass any horse ever known, a hundred miles a day not being an unusual journey over the deep snow, and at the end it will pick up its own food and find its own shelter from the winds.

Its hoofs, deeply cleft, adapt it to travel in the snow.

In winter it digs for its moss food beneath the snow or feeds on lichens, which grow on the trees.

A full grown reindeer at three years is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet high and 7 feet from nose to tail, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet in the girth. In average condition it will weigh 250 pounds. The male and female are about equal weight. The horns stand $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet from tip to tip, with sometimes a fan shaped horn extending from the inside of one or the other about a foot.

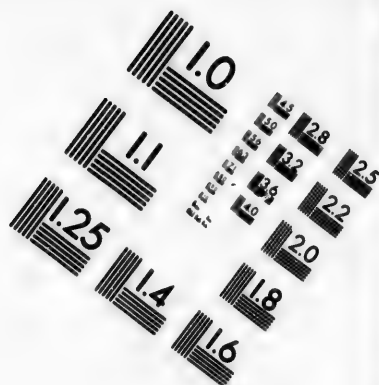
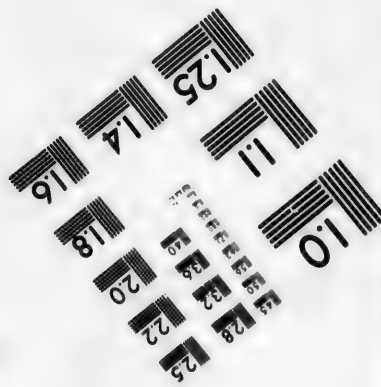
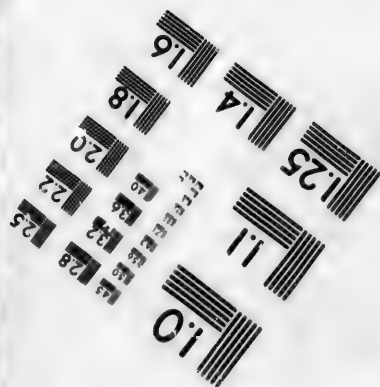
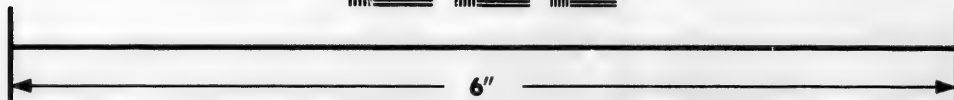
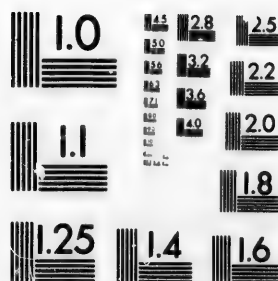


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OUR ALASKAN

This horn is used in clearing away the snow from the moss beneath. The horns are about two inches thick and covered with a fuzzy fur.

It is estimated that the Eskimos kill 15,000 wild reindeer every year in the chase.

Thus will be utilized a vast region unutilized to agriculture or cattle raising.

This branch of farming industry was projected, prosecuted and perfected under the auspices of the Office of Education.

In November, 1897, a party of 12 Lapps who had been herding reindeer in Alaska under contract with the United States Government, embarked at New York for their Lapland home. Their services were an entire success. Their countrymen will be further utilized in the most wonderful economic triumph of the close of the Nineteenth century.

In small fruits and berries Alaska cannot be excelled, either for flavor or abundance. The cranberry, that luscious concomitant of Yuletide turkey and tarts, thrives best where the sphagnum grows. This berry is now exported to Europe. The Alaskan cranberry will also have a share in this profitable trade. The varieties of berries on the lower latitudes of the Yukon include whortle, huckle, black, salmon and strawberries, besides black and red currants, the latter at 2½ cents a pound by the natives and several varieties of wild berries, which are edible and will sooner or later be introduced to civilization as among the Alaskan products in the American markets.

The Department of Agriculture, during the summer of 1897, completed a "reconnaissance" of Alaska from an agricultural standpoint. The reports of W. H. Evans and Benton Killin, the commissioners, cover the ground very carefully. They visited Southeastern Alaska, Copper River and other arable sections of the more temperate climatic readings. They officially reported the soil of those regions rich if properly drained, that grasses grow to great perfection, "red top" being the most

common, with timothy five feet in height; the country is pre-eminently the land of small fruits and berries, some of which might be introduced into the United States; the earlier and hardier vegetables thrive; the field of cereals is limited and uncertain; flax is a success; stock raising in certain localities is possible; there is need for legislation to secure proprietary rights in the soil before development can be expected; population is pouring in and may be 200,000 in 1898; the food supply for this enormous and magic increase must be shipped from outside owing to lack of home supply; the climatic conditions of the coast are like Scotland.

The report favors preparation of soil, adaptation of culture methods, stock raising, silo making, adaptation of vegetables and crops to the region and domestication of native fruits and grasses.

If any permanent stations which they do not recommend should be established, the commissioners advise the vicinity of Sitka or Kadiak. They prefer a general fund for expenditure in the discretion of the Secretary of Agriculture, the act of March 2d, 1887, being inapplicable without further legislation.

In a separate report to the Secretary, native grasses are said to grow luxuriantly an inch a day as soon as the timber is removed; the finest grass they have ever seen was in the Copper River Delta. White clover and Kentucky blue grass are becoming indigenous. Vegetation proceeds rapidly in the long days of July. The humidity and length of winter and not coldness is an obstacle. It may be said, without exaggeration, that the agricultural future of Alaska as population increases will eclipse the realizations of many established "States."

The forest branch of agriculture constitutes another immense source of the natural wealth of soil of Alaska.

The timber belt follows the coast line from the "fighting parallel" of 54-40 to north of the mouth of the Yukon and inland 100 to 150 miles.

The northern and western spruce limit

OUR ALASKAN

extends from the Unalalik River on Norton Sound, east and northeastward, just north of the Yukon, Kuskokwim and Nushagek Rivers, across the Alaskan Peninsula to the vicinity of Orlova Bay, on Kadiak Island.

The forests are almost wholly ever green, the spruce being largely in excess of all other varieties.

Of the deciduous trees the alder and willow extend on the low lands far beyond the northern and western spruce limit.

A variety of poplar, closely resembling the cottonwood, which grows to enormous size, also thrives in the timber regions south of the Arctic Circle.

On the Alaskan side of the 141 international meridian timber does not grow at higher altitudes than 1,000 feet.

The varieties of woods of commercial value are yellow cedar, known by the Russians as dusknik (scented wood), one of the most valuable on the Pacific coast. It is excellent for cabinet work. It is found mostly on Alexander Archipelago.

The Sitka spruce is the most prevalent of the Alaskan timbers. It grows to enormous size on the Alexander Archipelago and the shores of Prince William Sound and to less size in the valleys of the Yukon and Kuskokwim. It is used by the natives in the construction of their houses even where it does not grow, being caught along the coast and streams in the process of nature's methods of transportation on ocean currents and river freshets. Its sappy nature makes it invaluable to the interior Athabaskan tribes, where oil is unknown for illuminating their houses during the perpetual night of winter. It is used for sled runners, being better than iron. The Thlingkets and kindred races of the Archipelago hew their symmetrical canoes from it and use it in their dwellings. It is also accessible to water transportation.

The hemlock, exceeding even the spruce in size, is better adapted for fuel than building.

Balsam fir, the bark of which is largely used by the natives for tanning, is of great value.

Scrub pine is found over a great portion of interior Alaska to the highest altitudes of lumber growth.

The manufacture of lumber for the market is in its infancy. It is, however, capable of great expansion for the supply of trading posts and mining camps. As the local demand becomes established saw mills will multiply and the present supply mostly brought in from more thickly settled sections of the coast, will be more or less superseded by the home product.

At interior points the natives still use the slow and tedious process of splitting planks with iron or ivory wedges.

In the treeless islands of the Shumagin and Aleutian groups the supply is brought in by water from the timbered sections. This, with the growth of population, will give rise to an immense trade.

The forests of Alaska are to-day even more valuable than in 1867, when the croakers of the Fortieth Congress were crying "a howling Alaskan wilderness" in most senseless and unparliamentary tones. Nature, too, to protect this valuable resource of our Alaskan soil from fire has clothed the surface with the long fibrous water-soaked sphagnum.

The Government owns this vast reserve of wealth which has neither been opened to sale nor protected from the depredations of the white population, its great consumers, for domestic and industrial uses.

It may be mentioned as another of the many freaks of nature in this land of wonders that frequently immense mountain slides carry down with rock and rubbish vast acres of forests from the very tops of the mountains into the oceans at their base.

The baldness left behind in a few seasons is covered with salmon berry, black currants, devil club, elder and other shrubbery, and all of which is succeeded in time by a new growth of spruce and hemlock.

MILLIONS IN FURS.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXIII.

From the Depths of the Sea and Solitudes of the Forest.

Alaska's Contribution to Royal Robes and Costumes of Fashion of Old and New Worlds.

Has a National Right Been Compromised for a Mess of Diplomatic Pottage?

It would not be a distortion of the truth of history to say that every one of the original "Thirteen North American Colonies" of England, afterwards comprised within the bounds of the autonomous United States of America bankrupted the incorporated companies or individuals or seriously embarrassed the governments which undertook their exploitation and colonization.

The "original thirteen" States, including the later States of Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio and West Virginia, carved out of their original domain, embraced 525,000 square miles, or 54,000 square miles less than the domain of Alaska.

The old "thirteen" expended about \$200,000,000 and achieved a glorious triumph over an obstinate King to secure their independence which has proven the best investment any considerable portion

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of the human family ever made for themselves and their fellow-man. The advantages of this investment by our "Continental" ancestors are to-day beyond contemplation in money and beyond comprehension in the "life, liberty and pursuit of happiness," they vouchsafe to every American citizen.

The Virgin land of Alaska cost \$7,200,000, paid by the people of the United States through their national Senate and House of Representatives. The products of its natural resources have repaid the amount over and over again and will continue to do so, apparently, by an increasing ratio.

I can still feel grating upon my ears the harsh oratory of the Congressional croakers of the Fortieth Congress. I am glad to say, however, a minority of that body, boxing the compass of criticism, censure, vituperation and scandalous ignorance against the patriotic statesman who accomplished that great achievement of diplomacy.

The names of such misrepresentatives of the patriotism and progressive spirit of the American people as a body should be publicly proclaimed so that the rising generations may read as they run in the course of Empire.

It will doubtless cause the great mass of the people of the United States to bulge with surprise when I mention from official sources that the value of the furs alone shipped from Russian-America and Alaska since their discovery, 1745, down to the census year of 1890 assumed the enormous known dimensions in value of \$93,102,970.

It was not until 1786, 41 years after the discovery of Russian-America that the rookeries of the fur seal were discovered by Gerassim Pribilof, the daring Russian navigator. It is said that while cautiously feeling his way on the waters of Bering Sea on a foggy day in June, Pribilof was astonished by an unfamiliar roar as loud as thunder. When the fog lifted before him lay the islands which bear his name and his astonished gaze rested

upon a countless multitude of the valuable fur-bearing seal.

In the first year after this discovery 500,000 fur seals were killed by the Russian hunters. Veniaminof, the Russian missionary, says 2,000,000. It is known that the seals were nearly exterminated. At least one-half the skins were lost from ignorance in the methods of preservation.

The Chinese were the first buyers of these skins in the Siberian markets and for a time refused to exchange their teas for any merchandise the Russians had to barter except their seal skins.

The aggregate of all skins between the Russian discovery, 1745, and the cession to the United States, 1867, a period of 122 years, was \$44,584,041.

Since the later date to the census year 1890, a period of 23 years, the value was \$48,518,929, or nearly seven times what the territory cost the American people.

The efficient restrictive measures of the visiting imperial Chamberlain Nicolai Rezanof in 1807 prohibiting the killing of seals for five years restored their numbers so that the subsequent Russian American Company found the sealing industry a fixed and certain source of revenue.

It has since been shown by experience that with prohibition of indiscriminate slaughter the rookeries will sustain without diminution of productive substitution a slaughter of 100,000 seals a year.

The wholesale pelagic destruction by vessels from British Columbia, of male and female seal, the latter on their way to the breeding haunts, has of late years threatened extinction.

It is not necessary here to follow the example of the lengthy, protracted and compromising controversy over an established and inalienable right of jurisdiction and property of the people of the United States in the product of their own soil and waters adjacent thereto.

No one, except a querulous diplomat, so called, and the interests of a nation, disastrously misunderstood by the administrators of its might, would permit rights and authority to be trifled with by purposely prolonged controversy while the

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offending party continues its spoiliations.

The great Empire of Russia by summary and just methods amply protected her seal herds of the Commandorski Islands off her Kamtchatkan coast.

After the discovery of the Pribilof breeding grounds the threatened extinction of the seal notwithstanding their polygamous nature by wholesale and unrestrained slaughter, led to wise regulation of the drafts upon the herds. By the establishment of a native protection over them and the taking only of the surplus males (kholostiaks or "bachelors" as the Russians designated them) the numbers were rapidly restored. The system of forbidding the slaughter of females and young and limiting the slaughter to a fixed number of males under certain ages soon restored a natural equilibrium governed by natural laws. This system in working order in 1845 had operated so wisely that when the people of the United States became vested with the proprietary right in the entire territory the numbers were even greater than had ever been known.

The seal herds were also known to exist on Falkland and other isles in the vicinity of the southern latitudes of the American Hemisphere, but were practically exterminated by indiscriminate slaughter. Even with the exercise of needful jurisdiction these herds have not yet been restored to their former numbers.

In the face of this experience the people of the United States have through their official servants been led into trifling diplomacy in defiance of an inalienable right of property and jurisdiction at first enjoyed by the majestic and delightfully autocratic Empire of Russia and later transferred intact to the United States of America. To allow this right to be questioned by a weak and supercilious dependency of a power, at no time since her severe double thrashing in war sincerely friendly toward the United States, is as absurd as it is humiliating to American manhood and sense of right and power.

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absence of defined law which resulted in the slaughter of 240,000 of these valuable sources of commercial value. The adoption of the Russian method of protection alone prevented the destruction of the herds at that time. The United States Government also resorted to the universal panacea of all national ills, legislation, beginning in 1870. This was made more stringent in 1873 by making it a criminal offense to kill a female seal or to take seals except in conformity with the authority and regulations of the United States. Also seizure and confiscation of vessels was made a penalty. This allowed a larger number than the Russian draft, 30,000 to 40,000 seals each year, which was increased to 70,000 during Russian regime.

The success of the enforcement of legislation enabled the United States to take 100,000 a year from the beginning of its jurisdiction till the year 1890, or about 23 years, when there were indications of diminution.

The practice of leasing the islands to a responsible private corporation for a term of twenty years in consideration of a revenue tax and a gross sum of \$60,000 rent and other compensation, properly watched was also a protective measure held at first for years by the Alaska Commercial Company.

On May 12th, 1890, the Secretary of the Treasury for the United States under authority of law entered into a compact with the North American Commercial Company for another term, granting them the exclusive right of taking fur seals upon the Pribilof Islands, St. George and St. Paul in Alaska from May 1, 1890, for a period of twenty years, in consideration of an annual rental of \$60,000; also an additional revenue tax or duty of \$2 laid upon each fur sealskin taken and shipped by it from said islands; also the further sum of \$7.62½ apiece for each and every fur sealskin taken and shipped from said islands, and also to pay 50 cents per gallon on oil sold by it made from said seals, all guaranteed and payable to the treasurer of the United States.

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They also covenanted to furnish the inhabitants of said islands annually with dried salmon and salt and barrels for preserving their necessary supply of meat; also 80 tons of coal annually; also a sufficient number of dwellings kept in proper repair, and school houses; also to maintain schools for the education of the children eight months in the year by competent teachers, all to be paid by the company under the supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury. They were also required to maintain a house of religious worship, a physician, medicines, to care for widows and orphans and the aged and infirm, all free of cost to the said inhabitants and to the satisfaction of the Secretary of the Treasury.

The number of seals allowed to be killed each year must not exceed sixty thousand.

The profits to the lessees were also large. The product was also valuable to commercial enterprise and also built up and maintained a lucrative manufacturing industry in a foreign country—England. Instead of these skins being finished and put on the markets of the world by American citizens, thousands of subjects of that foreign state were thus employed in remunerative occupation.

The luxurious wants of modern civilization, and the devastations by the natural enemies of seal life, the whales and other marine monsters were supplemented in their destructive warfare by the practice of pelagic sealing adopted before civilization entered the field by the natives for food and clothing.

In 1876 the piratical fleets of British Columbia entered the fields of pelagic sealing. It was not, however, until 1883 that these corsairs entered the Bering sea in prosecution of their illicit devastations upon the seal herds of the people of the United States, thus more directly invading the inalienable rights of property and jurisdiction by the United States, whether the herds were ashore or passing through their feeding migrations.

The relaxed methods sometimes in vogue in matters of administration and the indifference of the lessees having over-

looked the entrance within the Bering Sea of one of these piratical craft, its successful catch was a bid to others. By 1886 these piratical invasions became a menace.

The Government having commenced operations by a rigorous enforcement of the statutes of the United States in reference to seizure and confiscation by instructions to commanders of American cruisers in that year three British and some American craft were taken in this piratical occupation and condemned.

The United States authorities now permitted themselves to be inveigled into a spun-out diplomatic correspondence, and finally in a treaty signed at Washington on February 29th, 1892, with England. This instrument consists of a long rigmarole of diplomatic verbiage in xv articles providing a very cumbersome and high-sounding arrangement in the shape of international arbitration with the United States, England, France, Italy, Sweden and Norway, to name the umpires, in all seven, the same to be jurists able to speak the "English" language. There were other details. The result of this unfortunate diplomatic compromise of an unquestionable and exclusive right and authority of the people of the United States over their own property, was the tribunal of arbitration at Paris, France, February 23d, August 15th, 1893, between the United States and Great Britain which resulted in a highly didactic and compromising array of five propositions with reductio ad absurdum progression of technicalities and phrasings and finally a general surrender of national honor and proprietary right. This arrangement conceded the right to Great Britain of practical exemption from acceding to these humiliating surrenders except it suited her convenience and required special concurrence by that power. Upon the United States it was obligatory.

They wound up their labors in a scheme of concurrent regulations outside the jurisdictional limits of the respective governments.

The humiliating proceedings were "rub-

OUR ALASKAN

bed in" by the concession of a ground of claim on behalf of the piratical seal poachers of British Columbia, all of which was signed in Paris, France, August 15th, 1893.

As might have been expected by any patriotic citizen the piratical operations of British subjects have been continued and the valuable seal life property of the United States has been devastated unrebuked. All efforts on the part of the United States to secure co-operation by Great Britain and her assumptions dependency have been a full fledged farce. The diplomatic sharps have beaten us and all the fine dinners in Paris and Washington have had the usual result of wheedling our representatives into a compromising surrender of established rights.

This self same arbitration of 1893 resulted in a convention between the United States and Great Britain, July 8th, 1896, for the settlement of claims growing out of the legally authorized seizure of British piratical craft in Bering Sea, 1886-92. This commission met at San Francisco, California, and Victoria, British Columbia.

As usual with all the rights and common sense justice on their side, the people of the United States have again been recommended for another fleecing to the tune of \$487,000. to meet the awards of this pretty Bering Sea Commission to British sealing captains seized during their piratical operations in Bering Sea in the destruction of the United States seal herds born and grown on United States soil, and the property of the people. It remains whether Congress will condone the outrage by appropriating the amount.

But more anon on such wilful sacrifices of the inalienable rights and interests of the people.

The prompt agreement at Washington 1897 between the United States, Russia and Japan to protect the sealing industry stands in marked contrast to the supercilious course of an inferior dependency, thus far calmly submitted to at Washington.

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accountability for such humiliations.

This is not my place to consider these
protracted and silly negotiations. It
would tally better with the spirit of the
American people to sink every piratical
vessel, American or foreign, on sight, and
to treat those engaged in this outlawry as
the common law of international rights
and summary salt water methods permit.

The sea is the common highway of all
nations. The property of nations travers-
ing these open waters may be protected
against all comers. The herds of a
United States farmer upon the vast plains
of the West, or traversing from one point
to another on the public highways would
be under the protection of law. Any in-
vasion of that right by footpads or ene-
mies would be dealt with by heroic mea-
sures which are sometimes paramount to
the tedious and ineffective operations of
judicial misconstruction of self-evident
property.

It is certain if peremptory methods are
not substituted for United States dally-
ing with the "played-out" British dodge
of protracted negotiations the latter all
the time "getting in their work" as the
saying goes, on the substantial at issue,
one of the immensely valuable productive
industries of our Alaskan possessions will
soon have been wiped out.

The increased value of this industry to
American citizens and their Government,
will have been observed by a comparison
of the cost value realized from the furs
shipped from Alaska for 122 years under
Russian dominion and 23 years under the
United States, the latter aggregate being
four million dollars more than for the
five times longer period.

Also besides the immensely valuable
sea otter whose ordinary pelt in the rough
will bring \$100 and a white one \$1,000
each our Alaskan possessions contribute
a large and valuable supply of land furs.

The names and relative value of these
may be realized by the following classi-
fied list, which covers the entire period
from the Russian discovery year, 1745,
to the United States census year, 1890,

OUR ALASKAN

145 years: Sea otter, \$36,365,400; fur seal, \$47,005,750. and in round numbers land otter, \$1,532,000; black foxes, \$2,471,000; cross foxes, \$486,000; red foxes, \$327,000; blue foxes, \$1,289,000; beaver, \$2,668,000 and marten or sable, \$966,000.

These figures may be regarded as far below the actual catch and capture on account of skins ruined and abandoned by imperfect methods of treatment for preservation, the inducement to false returns to avoid the heavy tax on furs and the encouragement to smuggling and direct shipments to China.

The official figures since the census taking of 1890 are not accessible in compiled form, but the fur industry, it is claimed, has maintained a fair average until within the past two or three years, when the indiscriminate pelagic slaughter of the fur seal by British pirates has been creating great havoc.

The best market for Alaskan furs during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries has been Europe and China, to which the United States on a large scale may now be added. Under the Russians the Siberian ports of Okhotsk, Bolsheretsk and Petropovlovsk were the first marts of furs from the islands and coasts of the American continent. The comparative cost value of these skins in unprepared condition in the best markets in 1890 were: Sea otter, \$100.00; fur seal, \$15.00; land otter, \$5.00; black fox, \$25.00; cross fox, \$2.00; red fox, \$1.00; blue fox, \$5.00; beaver, \$5.00. and marten, \$3.00.

It will also be interesting to note that the number of Alaska fur sealskins sold in London from 1868-90 aggregated 2,411,099, distributed as follows: Salted Alaska Commercial (the Government contract) Company, 1,861,052; other traders, 412,254; dried, 50,288; dressed, 87,505.

The fur seal skins landed at Victoria, British Columbia, in 1890, from official sources was 35,462.

During the four years, 1863-7, preceding the sessions of Congress in which the short-sighted unpatriotic pessimistic shouters were demonstrating their ignorance, talking about Alaska as a barren waste, icy wilderness and the like, that

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very region produced \$3,618,717 cost value of unprepared furs, sea and land, alone.

During the two years 1868-70, pending and immediately succeeding the acquisition of the territory, the output in these same line of products, was \$3,743,206, or over one half the whole purchase money.

The art of plucking and dyeing the seal skin was invented by the Chinese furriers, and was reported to the Okhotsk agents of the Russian Company as early as 1799.

The English demand for seal skins began early in the nineteenth century. In 1850 direct shipments to New York and London began and continued at about 40,000 skins a year, until the cession of the territory to the United States.

The daring Aleuts, for their services of laborious hardship in taking the animals, received but 20 to 30 cents a seal skin for killing and skinning, while the skins in crude condition realized from \$5 to \$20 in the Chinese market.

The price paid to the Aleutian hunters living on the islands of St. Paul and St. George, under the terms of the Government lease and their agreement with the lessees, has been 40 cents for killing and skinning each seal; laborers receiving \$1.00 a day.

The sea otter is found from Japan along the Kuriles Kamtchatka, the Aleutian Chain, the Alaskan Peninsula and estuaries and islands southward as far as Oregon, and formerly as far as the California Coast. The sagacious protective methods of the Russian authorities saved this valuable animal from extinction. This may be continued by the same wise heroic dealing with trespassers.

The land animals producing furs of commercial value, are distributed very generally throughout Continental Alaska and to within the Arctic circle. They comprise the land otter, beaver, brown bear and black bear. The red fox is found from the fighting parallel of 54-40 to Point Barrow, and to the last of the Aleutian Islands. Its pelt realizes \$1.00 each. There is also the black, silver and cross foxes found in the mountain fast-

OUR ALASKAN WONDERLAND

nesses of the Coast Range in Southeastern Alaska and along the Yukon, Tanana and Kuskokwim rivers and their tributaries, along the shores of the sounds and on the islands of the coast and the Aleutian Chain. The pelt of the black or silver fox realizes from \$10 to \$15, and often nearer the coast \$40 to \$50 in coin for a single skin.

The skins of the silver fox forms a lucrative trade in the Yukon Valley. The Arctic, or blue and white foxes, are found north of the Kuskokwim.

They are very numerous. Their skins are largely used by the Eskimo-Americans for clothing. The mink and marten are also widely distributed, their limit generally being the areas of standing timber. The pelt of the marten or sable, a corruption of sobol, the Russian word for marten, since the transfer of the territory through the freaks of fashion, has gone up in first price from 10 cents to \$6. in price.

The other fur animals, polar bear, lynx, wolves, grey and white, muskrats, rabbits, marmots and wolverines are largely used for food and clothing by the natives.

In 1889 the value of the fur seal pelts was \$1,077,478, representing 102,617 skins; 1890, \$267,750, representing 21,000; 1891, \$217,408, representing 13,588 skins; 1892, \$107,537, representing 7,175 skins, and sea otter pelts \$2,220, representing 18 skins.

It is thrilling to contemplate the heroism, daring, hardship, exposure and sacrifice of health and life associated with this widely spread industry. The folklore of the natives handed down on inscribed ivory tablets, and oral tales recount the deeds on sea and land which attended the pursuit and capture of these valuable denizens of the depths of waters and of the solitudes of forests.

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Our Alaskan Aquarium

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXIV.

One Half the Salmon Pack of the World From Our Alaskan Waters.

Wealth of Salt and Fresh Water Products Computed by Millions.

A Fish Story Founded on Figures.

To have entered a bill of particulars in reply to the croakers of the Fortieth Congress that within a quarter of a century their parliamentary "statistics" would receive "official" repudiation in the development of wealth in Alaska waters would not have been more than was said in a prophetic way by the patriotic champions of the payment of the purchase money for the valuable territory brought under the jurisdiction of the United States by its greatest of up-to-date diplomats and statesmen, William H. Seward.

I have spoken of "spot cash" millions in furs. I shall now give a few figures on fish, in which dollars are again counted by millions.

The value of the fisheries of Alaska were known from Russian and native sources years before the croakers of Congress expended their loquacity in efforts to mislead the better sentiment of their

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associates, their constituents and the people, by ignorance or misrepresentation.

In 1892, from the carefully gathered and compiled statistics by United States specialists we find Alaska a leading factor with our occidental commonwealths in the commercial fisheries of the Pacific Coast and waters.

This branch of Alaskan industry had its birth near Sitka in 1878. The following year the attempt was renewed at Klawak, on Prince of Wales Island, and was a success.

The honor of first bringing to official notice the amazing fishery resources of the "icy wilderness" of Alaska is due to Dr. Tarleton H. Bean, of the United States Fish Commission, in 1880.

Mr. Bean's report seemed to the singularly slow-minded public on Alaskan affairs as incredulous as the accounts which were carried to Europe two and a half centuries before of the fish off our New England coast.

These official reports, were, however, soon verified by the enterprising spirit of our fellow-citizens of the Pacific coast.

It will cause surprise to know that in the value of plant and cash capital employed in the fisheries of the Pacific coast of the United States Alaska leads the list.

In 1892, not the best year, the official figures showed totals of value of shore property, vessels and apparatus and cash capital, Alaska, \$2,609,650; California, \$2,526,746; Oregon, \$2,272,351, and Washington, \$1,593,567.

In persons engaged in this industry in 1892, while California led in vessel fishermen, Washington in shore or boat fishermen, and Oregon in factory hands, our Alaskan pearl of Pacific waters led in the number of shoresmen when all its canneries were in operation.

In 1891, the highest number of persons employed in Alaska in vessel and shore fisheries and canneries was 4,947.

In the same year the value of plant and cash capital aggregated \$4,185,825.

The aggregate investment in the fisheries of Alaska was greater than any of the

American Pacific Commonwealths, owing to the relatively expensive canneries located there.

If the strange diplomacy which has been permitted to pass on the fur seal piracy condoned by the British government in behalf of a dependency is allowed to continue the valuable industry of the Pribilof Islands will speedily take a second rank.

Within ten years, 1890, the salmon pack alone of Alaska was not only one-half that of the United States, but nearly one-half that of the whole world.

The canning industry may also be thus summarized for 1892, California led in the number of persons employed, 1,510, with Alaska a close second, 1,399; Washington, 851, and Oregon, 222. The same relation existed in the number of canneries and value. In cash capital Alaska was far in advance, \$1,067,500, with Oregon a close second, \$835,000; Washington a distant third and golden California \$40,000, barely recognizable in the race. Total investment, Alaska, again in advance, \$1,560,900, with Oregon pressing close up, \$1,433,000; Washington, not a close second, \$889,750, and California, \$135,000.

These figures would be even larger but for the wasteful methods of canning, using but the choicest part of the fish and discarding large quantities of product which, outside of Alaska, would be utilized.

Also the quantities consumed by the employes and natives would add largely to the aggregate.

The high water mark of salmon canning in 1891, causing a glut, will account for the reduced returns of the pack of 1892. The pooling of the interests of the firms and closing in 1892 of 18 out of the 33 canneries of 1891 in Alaska, restored the equilibrium of demand and supply. In 1896 there were 29 canneries and 14 salteries in operation.

The finest Alaskan canning salmon are the red-meated fish, averaging 7 pounds, and the Chinook or king salmon, averaging 30 pounds each. A case contains 48

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one-pound cans. There are also five other varieties of salmon.

The salting of salmon is also enormous. The salteries in 1893 consumed 5,871,000 pounds of raw material in the production of 19,572 barrels of salt fish worth \$158,576.

This branch of the salmon industry also had a valuation of plant and cash capital in 1891 amounting to \$3,734,408. The industry is conducted largely by steamers, but ships of over 1,000 tonnage are also employed.

The coast of Alaska is one of the best in the world for the spawning and growth of salmon. The estuaries along the coast leading into swift running streams fed by large fountain lakes answer to perfection the habits of this toothsome representative of the finny creatures.

The relentless destruction of the sources of salmon supply in Alaskan waters led Congress by an act, March 2d, 1889, to prohibit, under penalty of not less than \$250 a day, the erecting of dams, barricades or other methods of preventing the salmon ascending streams. As this law was a failure, Congress enacted a more stringent one, which was approved June 6th, 1896, with inspectors to see that its protective provisions were carried out. Many of the smaller red salmon streams had been rendered unprofitable by the destructive methods used.

In 1896 the pack reached 949,641 cases, with four dozen one-pound cans to the case, and 9,314 barrels of salted salmon aggregating in value \$2,383,757, employing 5,600 men. The weight of the fish as taken from the water was 69,270,000 pounds.

There were two Government hatcheries, at Karluk and Eto'ine, where respectively 5,500,000 and 2,000,000 eggs were secured.

It is due to some of our fellow citizens, at least, who have embarked their capital in these enterprises, to say that seeing the necessity of maintaining the supply, are establishing hatcheries at suitable points in hopes of returning to the waters as

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The United States Fish Commission is also doing its share in the important work of fish hatching in these splendid Alaskan waters.

Next to the salmon the cod industry takes rank in Alaskan fisheries. Since the beginning in 1865, during the Russian rule, the total number of fish taken is 25,723,300, representing \$12,861,650 in value.

In 1890 the catch was 1,138,000 fish, valued at \$569,000.

It should also be said that the San Francisco cod fishing firms take their supply from the Alaskan banks. These figures rightfully belong to Alaska. These totals would not only have placed Alaska in the lead, but also with double the values. The State of Washington also derived her figures from the same source, so that really there is little or no cod industry on the Pacific coast except what is derived from the valuable banks of the Alaskan Peninsula and our Aleutian Islands.

About midway in the glacial front of the St. Elias range, between Cross Sound and Yakutat Bay, about 50 miles off shore may be seen upon the official charts the commencement of what is known to navigators as the 100-fathom curve.

This line at varying distances from 50 to 150 miles off shore follows the western and southern coasts of the mainland, the Kenai and Alaska Peninsulas and the Aleutian chain. After rounding the western end of Umnak and returning along the north shores of the same islands as far as Unimak Pass in the Aleutian chain, it strikes northwesterly across Bering Sea until it curves coastwise southwardly along the Asiatic continent off the Siberian Cape Navarin.

Within this curve shoreward the depth of waters never exceeding 100 fathoms or 600 feet lie the valuable submarine banks or plateaus, which constitute the favorite resort of the cod and the fishing grounds which add so largely to this branch of Alaskan industry and also the

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United States fur seal rookeries of the Pribilof Islands.

From the starting point off the Alaskan shore to the Siberian coast this line traverses 40 degrees of longitude and after descending from latitude 59 to nearly 52 ascends to nearly 62 degrees north, making a southerly and northerly sweep of 17 degrees of latitude.

The New Foundland and New England banks so famous in the history of the fishing industries of the world at the time of the discovery and exploration of the northwestern shores of the Atlantic are the merest submarine sandbars compared with the scope of the fishing banks off the mainland and islands of Alaska.

In 1896 the Alaskan herring fisheries at Killisnoo on the Admiralty shore of Chatham Strait, including salting and the manufacture of oil, footed up 25,750 barrels, 90,650 gallons of oil, 550 tons of guano, representing a total value of \$35,000. These same operators, with an increasing market, propose an output of 200,000 gallons of oil and 1,200 tons of guano. The high water mark of 1892 yielded 500 half and 1,000 whole barrels of salt herring, 316,000 gallons of oil and 700 tons of guano. The oil sold at 25 to 30 cents a gallon, realizing \$85,000, and fertilizer at \$30 a ton, or \$21,000.

The Alaskan herring appear in the still waters of the bays and inlets by millions from August to September. It is rich in oil and finely flavored. Besides being a food and oil fish, it is largely used as bait for halibut and other large fish. The natives use quantities for food.

The Atka or Alaskan mackerel is one of the best of the Alaska food fishes. Its favorite resort, although found in other Alaskan waters, is in the vicinity of Atka and at the extreme island limit of United States Aleutian jurisdiction. The prime quality of this fish yields about \$20 a barrel.

The halibut is common to all the coast waters of Alaska. They range from 15 to 250 pounds in size and are particularly numerous near Sitka and are largely caught by the natives.

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The river fish, the white fish, loach and graylings of the Yukon, are used more by the natives in those regions than salmon.

In Southeastern Alaska black bass are abundant. The trout and pike are found in almost all the rivers of Alaska south of the Arctic circle.

The Alaska whale fishing in 1891 produced 12,228 barrels of oil, 186,250 pounds of bone and 1,000 pounds of ivory. The high water mark for oil was 37,260 barrels in 1886; for bone 564,802 pounds in 1887, and for ivory 74,000 pounds in 1877.

The aggregate output, 1874-90, was 306,039 barrels of oil, \$2,853,357; 402,143 pounds of bone, \$8,204,067; 4,284,395 pounds of ivory, \$147,047, making a total of \$11,204,465. It was during the governorship of Wolwodsky, 1848, that the United States whaling interests began in these waters. An American whaler, Captain Rags, having passed into the Arctic Ocean, was so successful in his venture that the spread of the news along the New England coast sent about 140 American whalers into that same sea within the year following.

In the total of market fish indigenous to Alaskan waters, 1892, Alaska furnished cod 2,219,835 pounds, value \$55,562; California 2,274,565 pounds, value \$56,864; Oregon none, and Washington about one-fourth the Alaskan amount.

Herring—Alaska 18,700,000 pounds, value \$32,900; California 4,486,887 pounds, value \$55,796; Oregon none, and Washington about one-thirtieth the yield of Alaska.

Salmon—Alaska 42,231,500 pounds, value \$1,219,973; California 4,862,408 pounds, value \$179,031; Oregon 25,563,701 pounds, value \$781,000; Washington 21,684,211 pounds, value \$551,546.

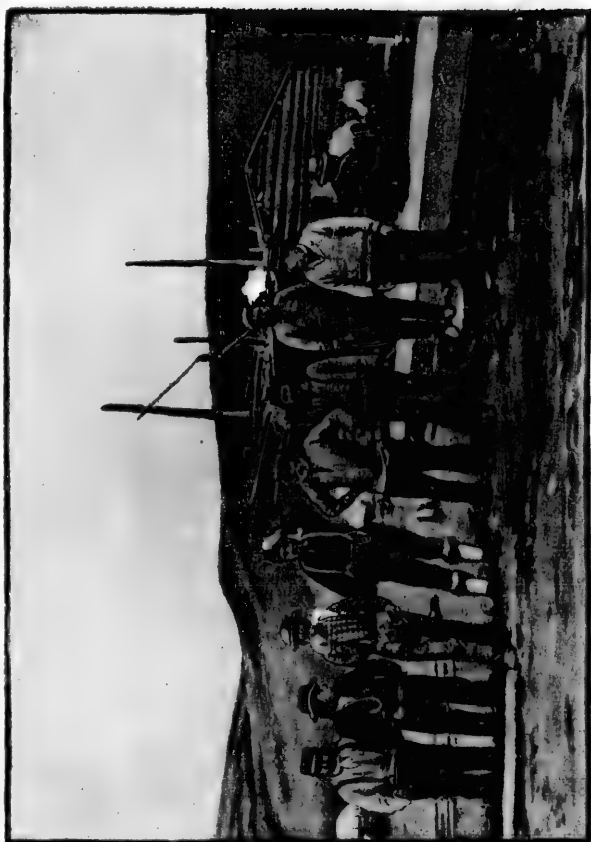
The valuation of the tin plate used in canning was \$311,454, which paid \$93,456 duty and would have paid \$116,700 under the act of 1897.

The registered tonnage of steam and other vessels employed is 37,398.

A single association expended \$103,804 for boxes and labor performed by white and native residents of the territory.

GOLD! GOLD!

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Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXV.

What the Lifting Veil of an Arctic Winter Revealed.

Alaska Not Overshadowed, but Expanded by the Luck of Klondike.

**Coal, Copper, Platinum, Iron, Lead, Antimony, Marble, Petroleum and
Maybe Gems Stored in Our
Distant Treasure Land.**

The ring of Klondike gold rekindled in the United States and the rest of the world a degree of enthusiasm rivaling in fervor the greeting which met the astounding discovery of auriferous wealth in California precisely one-half century before. The revelations of the future are not only impatiently awaited, but on the faith of the wonderful stories which have been told, an army of men and women from every section of our broad land are bending their steps toward the new regions of glittering wealth in sub-arctic latitudes.

The pioneer steamer *Excelsior*, which arrived at San Francisco on June 15th, 1897, by the substantial evidence of \$2,000,000 value of shining gold verified the rumors which had been wafted down the coast of fabulous new discoveries of the precious metal on the upper Yukon.

On the very crest of this first wave of

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excitement which swept across the United States and beyond the Atlantic, followed a month later the arrival of another treasure ship from Alaska, at Seattle, the Portland, with nearly a million and a half more of the yellow metal in masses from dust to nuggets from pin heads to hen's eggs.

The scene at the moorings of these Alaskan and Klondike gold laden craft was calculated to arouse the world.

The weather-beaten arctic seasoned heroes of golden lands staggering down the gangways from the decks of the steamers to terra-firma under the burden of their glittering harvest was pictured on the swift wings of electricity to the uttermost parts of the earth.

This was the thrilling sequel to the drama which had been played so completely behind the impenetrable veil of an arctic winter.

While gold discoveries are not solely an occurrence of modern times, the most valuable known fields have come to light in recent years. The earliest of the ancients of history used gold according to accounts, in fabulous quantities. We are told that in the time of Herodotus nearly five centuries before Christ, the ratio between silver and gold was ten to one. Almost twenty-four centuries after the people of a great republic repudiated 16 to 1.

The presence of gold in commercial quantities exists in many parts of the world, but the great centers of production during the latter part of the Nineteenth century have been California, 1847; Australia, 1851; South Africa, 1868; Alaska, 1873; Klondike, 1897.

This latest discovery which so electrified the world was but another step in the growing cumulative product of gold in the remote regions of the upper Yukon.

During the census decade 1880 to 1890, the Alaskan fields contributed \$4,004,500 value of gold and \$27,340 of silver to the stock of the world.

An enormous wealth of gold in Alaska has been a fixed fact for many years, but

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found "poor man's" placer mines of fabu-
lous richness on Birch and other streams
within United States and on the Klondike
and tributaries of the Yukon within
British jurisdiction has given an incentive
to a rush which may astound the world.

The first "show of color" officially re-
ported from Alaska was in 1873, in a gold-
bearing quartz vein on Slate Creek, two
miles from its mouth, on Silver Bay, 10
miles northeast of Sitka. In 1879 a 10-
stamp stream water power mill was built,
but in 1880 suspended. The claim was re-
located in 1883. In 1886 another com-
pany began working in the same district.

The officers and men of the United
States army united with the civilians in
their interest in the gold developments of
the Alaskan coast. Many of the men in
the ranks had had experience in the mines
of California and Nevada.

An instance is mentioned of two private
soldiers of the Sitka garrison in 1873 hav-
ing seen some of the samples brought
back from the Silver Bay region, obtained
a few days leave of absence, visited the
ledge and by means of two blasts return-
ed with \$300 worth of fine gold quartz
specimens.

Further investigations established the
"show of color" in sufficient commercial
quantities to entitle the event to the rank
of the first real discovery of the yellow
metal in Alaska.

The work of prospecting in this region
continued with favorable results until
January 30th, 1877, when the Alaska
Gold and Silver Mining Company, the
first in this Alaskan industry, was incor-
porated at Portland, Oregon.

The work of development began with a
ten-stamp mill in 1879. The next year
however, owing to mismanagement, these
works were closed.

This turn in affairs led to even more ex-
tensive prospecting tours in 1880, the
most famous of which were made by
Joseph Juneau and Richard T. Harris.
These men were outfitted by parties inter-
ested in the suspended mine. They start-

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ed from Sitka in a canoe in the direction of Taku River. The same autumn running out of provisions they returned with 150 pounds of sample gold quartz of great richness and 13 grains of dust.

The stampede which followed to the "regions," was unprecedented in the annals of quaint Sitka. Every variety of craft from a canoe to a steamer was impressed into the service of the wild "rush."

The pioneers Juneau and Harris, followed by a motley crowd of toughs and "tenderfeet," struck out again for the golden shores of the Taku. The gravels on the mountain slopes ran 15 to 30 cents of "color" to the pan. Juneau and his companion gave shape to their operations by locating the Silver Bow Basin district. At the same time they staked off their choice of placer ground and 18 quartz claims. Having organized the Silver Bow Basin mining district they adopted local rules for its government and marked out a "city" at the mouth of Gold Creek. This infant metropolis they named "Harrisburg," after Harris, Juneau's prospecting companion.

The shipment of a cargo of 960 pounds of quartz realizing \$14,000 back to Sitka added to the excitement.

Against the rigors of the approaching winter, 1880-1, the motley gathering of miners and prospectors built cabins on the town site. General merchandise stores were opened and saloons, dancing shanties and gaming haunts sprung into life with mushroom growth.

At the same time the population kept growing by contributions from other Alaskan centers of human habitation and over the border from British Columbia.

Their "city" was renamed Rockwell after the executive officer of the Jamestown, the United States vessel in Alaskan waters. Finally a miners' meeting, May, 1882, fixed upon Juneau, which name stuck, and to-day localizes the most go ahead up-to-date community in Alaska, and possibly the fourth of the United States cities of the Pacific coast of the future.

It was facetiously said by the camp wag of Juneau during the first winter that the miners lived on "snow balls and pepper."

In 1881 quantities of gold was panned and prospecting went on with increased vigor.

On Douglas Island, opposite Juneau, much gold was found on the beach.

In May of that year John Treadwell, of San Francisco, acquired a number of locations which grew into the celebrated Alaska Treadwell Gold Mining Company, organized in 1890, with a capital of \$5,000,000 a stamp mill and a most complete equipment. To-day this plant stands without a rival in any mining region in the world. The vein is 400 feet wide, bearing free gold and pyrites.

This pioneer enterprise gave character and permanency to gold mining, not only in Alaska, but stimulated prospecting in the regions beyond the confines of the United States dominion. The never ending thump of the dropping stamps crushing the valuable quartz and the fires of chlorination waken up the solitudes of that region of recent solitude with the sound of industry.

Some idea of the possibilities of Alaskan gold mining may be had from the "official" story of the Treadwell operations for the year 1895-6. The amount of ore mined was 263,670 tons. The profit for the year in gold applicable to dividends was \$497,342, the net cost per ton being \$1.08, the methods applied being concentration, roasting and chlorination.

The product of this mine from its opening, 1882 to 1891 was \$3,109,164. The yield per ton was \$3.70 and operating profits \$1,493,208.

That the outlook continues favorable may be judged by the erection of a proposed mill of twice the present capacity.

Another mine in the same locality known as the Alaska Mexican Gold Mining Company, under the same management, has also produced wonderful results.

This mill crushed 101,702 tons of ore or

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3.57 tons per stamp per day of 24 hours, at a cost of \$0.3491 per ton.

These somewhat dry details, to the layman will show to what extent the mechanical production of gold is already under way in our Alaskan Wonderland. It will, as now foreseen, remain one of its permanent and profitable industries, whatever may be the outcome of the placer operations on the Yukon.

The Berners Bay Mining and Milling Company on Lynn Canal, 55 miles above Juneau, at a town named Seward, after the great Secretary, incorporated in 1896, is conducting work on a large scale.

The entire region within an extended radius of Juneau, is already well stocked with gold quartz mining enterprises.

In the distribution of the work of the United States Geological Survey for 1895-6, investigation was made of the gold deposits and the coal resources near the shore line and on the islands of Southeastern Alaska.

The examinations in the vicinity of Juneau showed that the ore of the Treadwell Mine, on Douglass Island, averaged \$2.50 to \$3.00 per ton and yielded a large profit on account of their extensive workings and by stamping.

In the Silver Bow Basin three miles northeast of Juneau, veins of rich gold were being worked successfully in a 400-foot tunnel, by the hydraulic process by Wisconsin parties.

In Sheep Creek Basin, across the divide, on the same vein extended, fine results were obtained and only awaited development.

About 55 miles southeast of Juneau Sun Dum, Chief and Bald Eagle veins were yielding good bullion, at the rate of \$48 to \$55 a ton.

At Seward City, near Berners Bay, 50 miles north of Juneau, rich veins were yielding gold. On Admiralty Island, at Funtler Bay, about 30 miles from Juneau, they found promising veins worked by the Boston-Alaska Gold Mining Company. Near Sitka, along Silver Bay, and in the country to the southeast, were numerous veins, some yielding a little gold.

At Yakutat Bay, east of Mt. St. Elias

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and along the west shore of Kadiak Island, the yield of beach mining was large where pay streaks were found.

In Uyak Bay, on Kadiak Island, gold quartz veins were found two feet thick. Stream gravels were also being worked on Turn Again Arm, at the head of Cook Inlet, yielding \$120,000 value of gold in 1896. Rich gravels were discovered further up the inlet. A working on Beaver Creek yielded an average of \$5 a day.

On the Island of Unga, in the Shumagin archipelago, near Delaroff Bay, about 1,000 miles west of Sitka, the Apollo Consolidated Mining Company, one of the most extensive in Alaska in 1895-6, was yielding \$360,000 a year, the ore averaging about \$9 a ton, much of the gold being free. This company had \$375,000 invested in plant alone.

Even on Kotzebue Sound within the Arctic circle, gold is stirred up by canoe paddles in summer.

These reports say nothing of the fabulous wealth of the gold-bearing districts of inland Alaska.

If all the companies and their operations in this region were enumerated in detail, the list would be a long one and would add to what my fellow-citizen readers in "the States" have by this time realized—that they have been very much misled respecting the intrinsic and undeveloped wealth of our Alaskan Wonderland. Even a London exploration company is "in it," and capital in exploitation and profitable operations is not limited to ownership among the veteran gold operators of the Pacific States.

It is singular that in these ores but very little silver is found, the Sheep Creek vein being the only one. Rich silver ore is found north of Golovin Bay, above Norton Sound, but the low value of silver is an obstacle to working.

When we contemplate this established and steady flow of gold supply to assist in meeting the ever increasing demands of the world's financial operations, we are not so much overcome by the fabulous and possibly capricious yields of the placer mines of Klondike.

The existence of gold in the Yukon dis-

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trict had been mentioned as early as 1860, but the hostile attitude of the Chilkoot occupants of the mountain fastnesses of that accessible portion of the coast range thwarted an expedition fitted out in 1878.

It was, however, in the same year that one George Liot accomplished the journey from tide water to the Lake Lindeman headwaters of the Yukon, accompanied by a few Indians and following the Chilkoot Pass.

This daring pioneer was afterwards murdered by the natives.

In 1882 other parties made the rugged journey by the Dyea Trail. Others went in by the Kaiya Pass and found near the international boundary fine placer mines and 300 miners at work.

In the same year other parties took the Yukon route in a small steamer. Wintering at Nuklukayet they prospected during the next season, finding coarse gold everywhere.

The bars on Stewart River and tributaries, on British soil, entering the Yukon above the Klondike, gave a fine show of color prior to 1885.

The discoveries of coarse gold on Forty-Mile Creek were made within United States jurisdiction in 1886. Although this stream enters British territory 23 miles above its mouth and Sixty-Mile Creek, also crosses into British jurisdiction, the best of these diggings are on the United States side of the boundary. In 1887 150 miners were at work at different points.

In 1893 gold was found on Birch Creek and its forks. This stream, flowing north, is wholly within United States jurisdiction and enters the Yukon from the south on the Arctic Circle just below old Fort Yukon, at the confluence of the Porcupine.

The mining town of Circle City, on the west bank of the Yukon, founded in 1894, was the outcome of this rush. From it is a portage of about 20 miles to the headwaters of Birch Creek, where the gold lies.

In 1896 Circle City had a population of 1,800 people officially reported to the Post Office Department. Town lots were

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selling for \$2,000 each and \$1,000,000 of gold dust was turned out from the Birch Creek district.

The "city" was "officially" described in 1896 to the departments at Washington as having a postmaster, who was the only representative of the majesty of United States authority in a region almost as extensive as the Middle States.

It also had all the concomitants of "civilization"—dance houses, faro banks and rum shops.

Upon the receipt of the news of the Klondike discoveries almost the entire susceptible population of Circle City "pulled up stakes" and disappeared like a flight of birds passage in a single night. A few weeks after they turned up in the new regions about 200 miles higher up the Yukon. The "poor man's diggings" in the placer fields of the Yukon, are in their infancy. The impetus given by the latest discoveries in the Klondike across the international boundary line has vastly enlarged the field of prospecting and has intensified the spirit of adventure and prospecting to an amazing degree.

The field has been broadening. The milling of gold in the Juneau and Sitka regions is an established industry. The placer regions of the Yukon on both United States and British soil also point to a large yield before exhausted. Then resort to the unlocked treasures of the lodes which must remain of the source of glacial production of the placer supply will be had by means of machinery.

The difficulties in obtaining supplies and the expense of transportation, which has thus far been the drawback to operations on a large scale in these remote regions, are now being reduced to a minimum.

The substitution of steamboats for canoes and biadarkas and reindeer for dog teams will at once solve the problem.

The approximate distribution of gold production in the United States estimated by the Director of the Mint was: Alaska, 1894, 62,047 fine ounces, valued at \$1,282,623, giving Alaska the eighth rank in production. In 1895, 78,140 ounces, val-

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ued at \$1,615,300, advancing to the sixth in rank. In 1896, 99,144 ounces fine, valued at \$2,055,700; silver, 145,300, coinage value, \$187,863. In 1897 gold, valued at \$2,500,000. The Directors' estimate of gold from Klondike, British territory, 1897, is \$2,500,000. In 1897 Alaska was fifth in rank in gold production in the United States, the valuation being approximated \$20.67 per fine ounce.

The Yukon placer production of Alaskan streams in 1890 was approximately \$50,000; 1891, \$100,000; 1893, \$198,000; 1894, \$400,000; 1895, \$709,000 for the Yukon and \$69,689 for other streams. The same year the Eagle Creek discoveries were made and Klondike followed.

The total gold and silver production of the United States in 1896 was: Gold, \$53,088,000; silver, \$39,655,000 commercial value, \$76,069,000 coining value.

Before taking a survey of the situation over the line on the foreign soil of our Klondike neighbor it must be said that gold is not the only mineral wealth of our Alaskan wonderland.

The census monograph on Alaska, 1890, and the military and geographical reconnoissances since enumerate gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, antimony and platinum among the metals and coal, coal oil, marble and soapstone among the other hidden resources of the soil. The value of gold and silver production I have mentioned.

The native accounts speak of fabulous quantities of copper on the Copper River, and samples of bullets made of the metal sustained their statements. These reports have been verified by scientific and other visitors to the mouth of that stream. Notwithstanding the reconnoissances the "mountain of copper" has not yet been revealed.

The representatives of copper producers have already taken locations on Prince William Sound on the coast above the outlet of the Copper River and will begin operations in the immediate future.

The platinum is confined to the Yukon region.

WONDERLAND

The United States official reconnaissance of the Alaska coal area, 1895, surrounding Kootznahoo Inlet, along the south side of the Alaskan Peninsula to the head of Cook Inlet and thence to Kachemak Bay, where extensive deposits of brown coal occur, and by way of the Shumagin Islands to Unalaska, was very satisfactory.

The localities bordering on Bering Sea, south and north, and on the Yukon, were not visited, although reports come from those regions.

The result of this investigation was that large fields of good qualities of brown coal exist on the eastern shore of Cook Inlet and on the south shore of the Alaskan Peninsula.

The coals of Alaska are all brown, there being no anthracite or paleozoic bituminous having been found up to that time.

The universality of the deposits of fossil fuel in Alaska is very great. They are found at numerous points in the Alexander Archipelago, on Cook Inlet, Lituya and Yakutat Bay, Kenai Peninsula, Kadiak Island in the Shumagin group, Unga and Popoff Islands and the Aleutian Islands from Akum and Unalaska to Attu. Also in Northern Alaska on Nunivak Island and at Point Vancouver.

This valuable agent in modern development is also found in the Yukon territory on Norton Sound, Topanika Ulukak, also in the Lower and Upper Yukon and Nulato, Kowak River, Capes Beaufort, Lisburne and Wainwright Inlet in the far North.

The tests of coals taken near the surface showed very satisfactory results as compared with Wellington and Nanaimo from Vancouver Island, British Columbia and imported bituminous coal from Cardiff, taken as a standard.

The comparative test between supplies from Cook Inlet, Alaska, and Nanaimo and Cardiff showed Cook Inlet coal 75 per cent. of the heating effect of Nanaimo and 63.7 per cent of Cardiff bituminous.

This was considered a fair average. Many of the Alaskan coals lie near tide water. With the rapidly increasing de-

OUR ALASKAN

mand for stamping mills and reduction works, not to speak of steamers, ocean and river and the numerous economic purposes Alaskan coals will find an extensive demand if cheaply put in the market.

The eleventh census, 1890, showed coal to the amount of 11,178 tons imported into Alaska. It now vastly exceeds that quantity.

The supply as late as 1895 came from Vancouver Island, British Columbia, mines. Capitalists from the United States, both Eastern and Western, have been prospecting with the best results.

The most extensive works were established on Kachekmak Bay, Cook Inlet. The area there is reported about 25 by 80 miles and comes down to within 1,800 feet of the water.

The largest seam, near Coal Point, was seven feet thick, resembling anthracite.

In 1894 the North Pacific Mining and Transportation Company, with \$3,000,000 capital stock, began explorations on the bay. The Alaska Coal Company also began operations in this region in 1899 with capital stock of \$2,000,000 in \$10 shares. Each company expended about \$50,000 in preliminary work and buildings and plant.

The sparking of the coal was its drawback for railroad purposes, according to tests on the Southern Pacific Railroad.

There are indications of large quantities of iron ore in different parts of Alaska. In the race for gold the less rapid but equally remunerative sources of natural wealth have been passed by.

A valuable quality of marble from which lime of superior quality has been made by the Russians at Sitka exists on Halleck Island, 14 miles distant.

This valuable source of industry is being investigated and will be added to the list.

The existence of petroleum has also been known for years. The surface of the waters in the vicinity of Prince William Sound have shown it in floating quantities sufficient to attract not only attention but exploitation with a view to investment and development.

WONDERLAND

I cannot but recall the confident words of Secretary Seward and the stirring oratory of Senator Sumner before the Senate of the United States and of the patriotic champions of the Alaskan purchase in the House of Representatives upon the mineral wealth of Alaska.

The outlook of 1898 is that another few years will develop that the Union possesses no single Commonwealth outshining in mineral wealth our Alaskan Wonderland. And who knows, except the omniscient architect of the universe, what yet unspoken treasures of gems and metals and baser things of commercial value may come from our Alaska.

9

Our Klondike Neighbor.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXVI.

Glittering Treasure Frozen in Yukon Sands.

Off on a Honeymoon and Back With a Fortune.

**Dawson, the City of Placers--A "Siwash"
Fisherman's Luck Startles the World
--The Gold of Alaska and Klondike the World's Supply of the
Future.**

The oft spun tale of one George W. Carmach, of the State of Illinois, by birth, in a state of native matrimony by condition and a state of indigence by circumstances, epitomizes the discovery of the golden treasures of the Klondike. He was not the first to go in, but was the first to come out with luck on his side. He had married a Stickeen woman and lived with her tribe near the Tagish lake.

While on a salmon curing expedition for his winter supplies, having camped at the mouth of the Klondike, a miner's softening of the Indian Throndiuk (water full of fish) during the summer of 1896, eked out the rest of the season panning the bars of that stream.

Making a domestic affair of his sudden road to fortune, with the aid of his wife and Indian brothers-in-law, in eight days

OUR ALASKAN

in the month of August, working against every disadvantage, the family party panned \$14,200 on Bonanzo Creek and established the reputation of that tributary as "a payer."

The first gold excitement beyond the northern limits of "the States" in the far northwest occurred in 1858, in the Kootenai district in the southeastern corner of British Columbia. This area extends across the United States border into the States of Washington, Idaho and Montana.

This was followed by further discoveries in the Cariboo and Fraser River regions, also in British Columbia. There were also discoveries along the headwaters of Peace River, which descends from the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains and finds its outlet through Athabasca and Great Slave Lakes and Mackenzie River into the Arctic Ocean on British Canadian soil.

In the earlier part of the excitement these placers turned out \$2,000,000 culminating in 1864 at \$3,800,000, which in 1890 fell to less than one-seventh that annual output.

In 1863 placers were located in the Stickeen River yielding \$10 a man per day. These mines were about 20 miles across the eastern line of Southeastern Alaska, the Stickeen River itself entering tide water near Wrangel, in Alaska.

In the more distant British-Canadian interior gold in small quantities was found near the junction of the Lewis and Pelly Rivers of the Yukon, at Fort Selkirk. In 1869 the United States Western Union Telegraph expedition also found gold on the Upper Yukon.

But it was not until George Holt, an experienced prospector, in 1875, brought down substantiated reports of gold on the Lewis that the "rush" for the interior began.

In 1881 gold was reported the whole length of the Big Salmon, one of the upper tributaries of the Lewis-Yukon.

In the same year a party of prospectors ascended the Yukon from St. Michael on

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An Alaskan Reindeer Team.

WONDERLAND

a small steamer which they had purchased. Wintering at Nuklukayet, the following season they found gravel bars on the tributary creeks of the great stream yielding about \$12 a day to the man. These were the first gold discoveries on the great river on United States soil.

In 1883 about \$1,000 value of coarse gold exhibited at Juneau, said to have come from the Yukon, gave impetus to the rush of 1884.

The results on Stewart River further stimulated the excitement. Over 300 miners had now entered the vast region beyond the coast range passes.

In 1885 \$75,000 value of gold had been brought down from the interior. In 1886 a still more important yield was made at Cassiar bar, about 10 miles below the mouth of the Big Salmon, yielding about \$20,000. In the same year gold was discovered near the outlet of Shitando River, anglicised Forty Mile Creek, the most of which lay on the United States side of the 141 meridian.

The next year Franklin Gulch, named after the discoverer of Forty-Nine, was opened. This gold was found in nuggets yielding two of the largest, worth \$239 and \$500, found in the Yukon region.

In 1890 the yield was reported by the Governor of Alaska at \$275,000, although the Director of the Mint stated it at \$50,000, which was regarded as a very conservative estimate.

The next discovery was Miller Creek, in the Forty Mile district, in 1892, by a prospector of that name. One claim yielded \$30,000 the first year. The next year 80 men took out \$100,000. This is situated wholly on British-Canadian soil.

In this year there were 300 men in the Forty Mile region.

In 1893 two Russian half-breeds brought news of having "struck it rich" on Birch Creek, in Alaska. The Koyukuk River now yielded \$30,000 as a starter.

The yield of the Yukon placers in 1894 had largely increased, Forty Mile and Birch Creeks alone putting out \$409,000.

OUR ALASKAN

The yield of 1894 doubled in 1895 with Eagle Creek added to the list of "payers." The Porcupine even yielded its share. In that year the Yukon was credited with contributing \$709,000, with the Birch Creek mines in the lead.

The discoveries at Klondike in the summer of 1896 exceeding those at Birch Creek again set the tide in motion.

How news circulates in a region without even the most primitive means of established communication, and where the men spring from in response, is a mystery of frontier life. It would seem as if the very solitudes of the mountains and the vales carried it on the wings of the wind. Before the end of August the same month in which Carmack made his "find," claims were being filed. Within thirty days over 200 men, as if they had risen from the very earth, sprung upon the scene and began the scramble for locations and the golden treasure beneath.

The word Klondike less than a brief twelvemonth later was the world round, synonym of fabulous riches in fine gold.

The United States Geological Survey, ever alive to the developments of the vast interior regions of the public domain, promptly dispatched a scientific expedition under J. E. Spurr, assisted by H. B. Goodman, into the field of these recent discoveries. From this official authority the area of the gold producing sources of the Yukon placers have been located. The belt of auriferous rocks is placed at 50 to 100 miles in width and extending on both sides along the Yukon about 500 miles.

The eastern or up stream limit lies in British-Canadian territory and crosses the Lewis and Pelly tributary sources of the Yukon just above their junction at old Fort Selkirk.

The belt following the course of the Yukon on both sides crosses into United States territory just before reaching the United States trading post Belle Isle, about 220 miles in a direct line and much further by the windings of the river.

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Within this stretch of British soil on the west side enters the White River, above the rock bordered channel, mapped as the Upper Ramparts, and excepting its headwaters, entirely on British-Canadian soil.

About 10 miles below on the east side enters the Stewart River. This stream and all of those inflowing on this side as far as Belle Isle are entirely on British Canadian soil. The Stewart River was an important factor in the gold production of that region in the earlier operations, but lost prestige after the later discoveries.

About 20 miles down stream enters Sixty Mile River. Although the international line is but a few miles in a due west direction from its mouth, winding down from the north about 90 miles of its course is on foreign soil.

The gold producing headwaters but 10 miles by portage from the gold yielding head forks of Forty Mile River, are in Alaska. About 40 miles below we reach on the east side the mouth of the Klondike River, the sensation of the day.

About 50 miles lower down the Yukon we arrive at Forty Mile River from the west, with the British frontier customs posts of Forty Mile on the south and Cudahy on the north side of its mouth. About 15 miles of this stream in a straight line is on British-Canadian soil, the most valuable placer portion, however in the forks are wholly in Alaska.

The Yukon, after a sinuous course, though less than 25 miles cross-country, passes under United States jurisdiction and terminates the Yukon British-Canadian gold areas. About 110 miles a little west of north in a direct line and further by the river lies the Birch Creek United States mining metropolis of Circle City named in honor of the Arctic circle.

Passing over the break, "ignominiously surrendered," as Senator Sumner characterized it in the continuity of our Pacific Coast possessions we find that the territorial bounds of British Columbia, by which this thorn in the side of the people of the United States is designated, intersects the 10 marine league eastern Inter-

OUR ALASKAN

national boundary of Southeastern Alaska at the sixtieth parallel. North of this line and east of Western Continental Alaska lies the vast frigid region known as the British Northwest Territory.

The first news of the Klondike discoveries wafted across the United States border in the direction of the Birch River mining town, Circle City, about 300 miles lower down the Yukon, although mid-winter with the mercury frozen in the bulb, and the temperature at 60 degrees below zero, set in motion 540 men for the new field.

The stories of the winter's work and the hardships overcome seem incredible.

The Klondike approaches the Yukon from the southeast and has four principal tributaries from the south. The Bonanza, the largest, enters three miles above the mouth, and has six tributary creeks of its own, the richest being Eldorado, about thirty miles long, with several small branches. Ten miles higher up the Klondike is Bear Creek; above that Hunker. Five miles above is Gold Bottom, and twenty-five miles above that Too Much Gold. It is claimed that these streams and tributaries are holding out as rich as the first discoveries.

The equipment of a Yukon miner, what he can buy for a song, consists of a pick, shovel, gold pan, whip-saw and axe. What he cannot buy for all the riches of Klondike but must have, is a constitution of iron, a body of steel and a will of both, in order to endure almost the utmost limit of cold, relentless exposure, the coarsest of food and the rudest of habitation.

There is naturally no end of tales told of the fabulous wealth of the Klondike, and there is no reason to doubt them. The proof of the pudding being the eating thereof the scene on the wharves of Portland and Seattle was sufficient to satisfy the most incredulous.

The Barney Barnato of the Klondike is given as Clarence J. Berry, a Fresno, Cal., farmer, hopelessly in debt and in love with a pretty maid whom he wished to marry. She loved him. They were married and took their honeymoon to the Klondike.

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The bride bore her share in the tolls and trials and they won together. For luck Berry was without a rival. In 30 box lengths, 12x15 inches to the box, he took out \$130,000, one length yielding \$10,000. A single nugget of 13 ounces, worth \$17 an ounce, the camp standard, realized \$221. This was one of the returning miners who carried his gold in sacks, two of which he sold for \$85,000 as soon as he landed. Berry and his bride after a twelvemonth were back in Fresno with their romantically earned gold. Purchasing the old farm they settled down to enjoy life in the good old way. This is the extreme limit but the stories of rapidly gotten wealth in "chunks" are fabulous.

A pan will hold about two quarts of "dirt," weighing 12 to 14 pounds, which it requires about ten minutes to wash out. The reward of the lucky ones are given at \$100 to \$280 to the pan. Another \$1,500 in four pans.

These instances of luck, for that is nine parts of successful placer mining the odd tenth being "the color" itself, might be multiplied almost indefinitely. If the experiences of 1896-7 be the measure of the future with increased numbers shaking out the glittering particles, the golden riches of the Klondike will exceed the placer mines of Africa if not of California while they last. After the Klondike excitement abates the world will be startled by the prospectors of Alaska who have made important new discoveries for the time being overshadowed.

An idea may be formed of the richness of this stream by \$100,000 worked out of 100 feet of a claim the owner refusing \$200,000 for the rest, expecting to realize \$400,000. His pay dirt averaged \$250 to each man a day.

It is told of miners in extreme cold weather carrying the "dirt" into their shacks and after melting snow and ice in a tub panning out \$1,800 in a day to meet expenses.

While the accounts of gold ring upon the ears of the world with such startling effect the gold itself is wrung out of its bed at the cost of almost superhuman endurance, toil and discomfort.

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The Yukon gold mining, whether in Alaska or Klondike, differs entirely from the practice in "the States." This is largely due to the Arctic conditions which envelope the country. All claims as the individual areas are termed, under Canadian laws, are 500 feet with the stream and from rim rock to rim rock on either bank at right angles, usually from 80 to 100 feet in width in gulches.

In Yukon placer mining it is necessary to sink a shaft to bed rock beneath. This severe task in the face of the frozen conditions consists first in removing a lot of sphagnum or Arctic moss.

Then is encountered a bed of soil and gravel frozen as tight as a winter temperature as low as 75 below zero can freeze it fast to the bed rock, sometimes 25 feet below the surface. Through this adamant covering it is necessary to penetrate before the "pay dirt" which lies immediately on top of the bed rock, can be reached.

If my readers will imagine a hole in the ground and from the top look into its depths, after removing nature's top dressing of moss, soil and muck, next will be seen a layer of gravel and sand possibly 12 to 15 feet from which a small yield of gold is taken. Next is met a layer of 3 or 4 feet of coarse gravel, in this case yielding from \$1 to \$5 a pan. As we enter the "pay streak" the 1 or 2 feet of gravel becomes finer and these mines have averaged upwards of \$100 a pan. Below this is a "pay streak" of black sand, very fine usually accompanying placer gold, which here has yielded from \$30 to \$50 a pan. Below this is the bed rock. A pan, as I have said, means about two quarts of "dirt" and ten minutes shaking the pan with the "dirt" and water.

To reach this depth is in itself a Herculean task and can only be accomplished inch by inch by means of immense fires built on the spot to be worked with wood carried a mile or more and renewing the operation as the film of surface is thawed soft enough to be detached from the rest.

When too great a depth is reached it is necessary to hoist the loosened earth to the surface by means of a windlass,

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which requires additional labor at \$1.50 an hour.

It does not always follow that the "pay streak" will "pan out rich" when it is reached. That is the chance. Nor does this toll end here. After reaching the streak it becomes necessary to drift or tunnel into the still frozen soil. Fire is again resumed. This time by stacking the wood at the bottom of the shaft against the face of the proposed drift and, placing over it a roof-like arrangement of boards resting against the side of the shaft above the wood on one side and against the bottom of the shaft below it on the other. As the wood beneath burns the thawing earth above falling upon this extemporized roof retains the heat underneath sufficiently to soften the pay streak so that the earth may be removed.

This is hoisted to the top by means of a windlass and placed in a pile for panning or sluicing in the spring and summer.

The sluice box is a stripped bottom receptacle into which the "dirt" is thrown. The particles of heavier gold fall when loosed from the "dirt" in passing through the box by means of running water. The gold is held in check by the strips, into which it has settled. This process, with an abundance of water, indispensable in gold mining, greatly facilitates the operation of separating the gold from the sand and gravel which carries it. It also increases the amount handled from ten to fourteen pounds to the pan to hundreds and thousands in the sluice boxes, and with a proportionate yield from ounces to pounds, that is, "if it's there."

The ruling rate of labor at \$10 to \$15 a day while excessive to home ears is usually met by a few pans worked at the close of the day.

In winter panning or sluicing is impossible, but the "dirt" made ready for that operation during the frozen weather is panned with the first thaw of summer. As the sub-Arctic day at its height is fully 20 to 21 hours long no time is lost during the ten or twelve weeks it lasts. The mercury, thawed out, craw's up to

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90 degrees above instead of taking a frozen sleep in the bulb at 40 below, with the temperature running 20 to 25 degrees more out of sight.

There is doubtless a vast store of golden wealth on both sides of the Yukon in the gold belt I have described and with the multitude of prospectors pouring into the country some of it will be found.

There are already current stories of gold quartz on the streams near Cone Hill, discovered by an American, and reputed to be more valuable than the famous Treadwell Mines in Southeastern Alaska.

The suddenness with which towns have sprung up under such severe conditions is a marvel equal to the disclosures of the hidden wealth of the "dirt" upon which they are founded.

Joseph La Due, a name familiar in the Yukon regions as a pioneer, trader, miner and saw mill operator, was at Sixty-mile Creek trading post about that many miles above the Klondike, sawing lumber. Hearing of the reports from below he rafted his entire saw mill down to the mouth of that stream and laid the foundation of a "city," which became the famous Dawson of the Klondike, after the leader of the first Canadian International Boundary Survey of 1887.

This wily individual was overrun with orders at \$100 and more per 1,000 square feet for lumber which cost him nothing in the rough. This lumber was punted or carried to the mining tributaries.

Before the spring of 1897 1,300 men were reported at Dawson. The "city" also began to show manifest signs of growth and civilization. Some lived in tents, some in frame buildings, and some in shacks, a log and brush and earth-covered hut. There were five saloons in full blast, taking in from \$200 to \$1,000 a day, with whisky and beer at 50 cents a drink. There were gambling dens which did a thriving business on a hat full of nuggets ante. There were dance houses, loud with ribaldry and fierce enjoyment.

The town itself was staked off according to the "American plan," whatever

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that may be; possibly the web and woof style made by contract and cut off to suit purchasers. Town lots on main Sphagnum paved thoroughfares brought \$1,000 to \$2,000 each.

The "City" of Dawson is from 5 to 50 miles from the immediate scene of the eager game of chance being played with Mother Earth by thousands of enduring and toiling men.

The British Canadian City, populated almost wholly by citizens of the United States, is still heralded as a saintly rendezvous of the daring adventurers. It does lack the old fashion vivacity of United States mining towns, where miners carried a small arsenal about their persons and indulged in an occasional fusillade for pastime.

There are also other ways of getting gold besides the toilsome labor and exposure of the gulch and the shaft. The mining laborer is in demand at \$1.50 an hour, the carpenter \$1.00 an hour, and other manual and mechanical occupations at the same rate.

The credit of being the first woman in the Klondike region is given to Mrs. Thomas Lippey, who lived in a tent and took her chances with the rest in toiling at the windlass, in the pit or at the pan.

A story is told of an Irish cook having left her employer in San Francisco, started for the Klondike by the Yukon route. She had upwards of a hundred offers of marriage before she reached St. Michael. Finally she accepted a burly boy of her own old Ireland, who had the grit in him. In one season she was back in San Francisco with a fortune and, taking farewell of her employer, was off for Erin.

Another woman, opening a laundry, made a small fortune in a single season.

There is work for all who come, as long as the "color" lasts, at laborers' wages as "rich" almost as the yield of the "pay dirt" itself.

The best chances have been taken by the pioneers. It is known that many of the claims have already passed into second hands at prices ranging as high as prop-

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erties in a metropolitan city five and six thousand miles away in the heart of population and commercial wealth.

There are other streams in this region from which favorable accounts may be anticipated if the number of claims staked is any guide to realized expectations. Among them are Miller Glacier and Gold Creeks, tributaries of Sixty-Mile River on the Canadian side of the line, and estimated at \$90,000 a season. There are also reports of a quartz lode about 19 miles from the Klondike, from 3 to 8 feet thick, realizing from samples \$100 a ton, and another lode is mentioned on a stream midway between the coast range and Fort Selkirk. Also at the head of Aleck River, near the Chilkat Inlet.

The immense wealth of the Klondike placers logically means valuable quartz lodes somewhere near by. To placer, "the poor man's" mining, there has always been an easy limit. Then the field will open to expensive machinery.

The future will reveal the rest.

The placer mines of Klondike, 50 to 100 miles east of the Alaskan border, are but part of the same gold bearing area the greater portion of which lies within the United States' jurisdiction, and will prove of equal richness.

It is claimed that the Klondike placers are the richest in the world to-day and will be the richest ever known while they last.

The mysterious happenings in the race for hidden gold will decide, but to-day it looks as if the Yakona mines will be the foremost source of supply of the increasing demand of the stock of gold required by the financial transaction of the world.

There is room in the Klondike region alone for thousands of mining claims, the most desirable of which have been filed and there is room for thousands of men to work them.

There is a chance for thousands more to make their own "stake" by prospecting and luck in Alaskan and Klondike golden fields.

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The Canadian law is the reverse. As
soon as the citizens of the United States
opened the country for them they hur-
ried out their surveyors, mounted police,
gold commissioner, customs officers and
took possession. They also established
a license fee of \$15 for each miner, be-
sides \$100 annual rental on each claim,
a royalty of 10 per cent. on the gross pro-
duction of all mines yielding over \$500
a month and 20 per cent. above that.
They reserve each alternate claim for the
Government.

How long these exactions upon a sov-
ereign people at home will be submitted
to remains to be seen. Ex-Secretary of
State William H. Seward gave a forecast
of that in his speeches in Alaska, British
Columbia and Oregon, in 1869.

CRUCIBLE TESTS.

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXVII.

"Uncle Sam" a Spot Cash Buyer of Millions at the Mints.

What Becomes of Alaskan and Klondike Gold.

**From Dust and Nuggets to American
Eagles--How It is Done--Gold
"Officially" Speaking.**

The suggestion frequently arises in the popular mind, even if the question be not asked, as to what disposition is made of the accumulation of crude gold which is brought back to the "States" from Alaskan and Klondike placers by the men who toiled and sacrificed for its possession through a long Arctic winter hurried spring and "snap-shot" summer.

The answer is simple. A large portion finds its way out of the hands of its original possessors in payments to the trading companies or merchants for food, clothing and supplies of various kinds; much of it goes into the pockets of saloon keepers on the spot; and a share too often vanishes at the gambling tables and still more changes owners in large sums through various forms of dissipation.

The average miner in the end has little of his hard-earned spoil of the golden gravels left. He starts ahead again to test fortune for another supply.

In "the region" every one carries a

OUR ALASKAN

pair of small scales and payments are made by weight at \$17 per Troy ounce of dust or nuggets. The Troy ounce is the unit of value.

Those miners who reach "the States" with their buckskins, valises, oil cans and other receptacles full of the precious metal usually convert it into coin by sales through brokers, often at enormous discounts and excessive commissions and other manufactured charges.

The official method, which is the most remunerative to the original owner, and that which is employed by the broker, is to present the yellow metal at a United States mint or assay office in San Francisco, Philadelphia or other point where such a Government institution is located, and have it properly assayed and paid for in United States coin.

In order to be exact in the narration of a routine which is exactness itself, I will avail myself of the routine officially described to me by Mr. Herman Kretz, the superintendent of the United States Mint at Philadelphia.

Superintendent Kretz says:

"The rules governing the receipt of deposits from the general public are very simple.

"Gold is received in the following forms, viz.: Bars, grains, lumps and dust in their native state, free from earth and stone, or nearly so; amalgam with the quicksilver expelled, jewelry, dentist's plate, gold leaf from bookbinders' waste, clean fillings, etc. In a word, all bullion suitable for the operation of the mint and one hundred dollars in value and upwards will be received at the mint. (Less value than one hundred dollars may be refused).

"To produce a value of one hundred dollars would require in native gold from six to eight ounces Troy weight. For jewelry 750 (18 karats) down to 333- $\frac{1}{3}$ M. (8 karats) from seven to fifteen ounces would be required. Eighteen karat gold is worth \$15.50 an ounce. An ounce Troy of pure gold (or 24 karat) is worth \$20.67. Standard or coin gold (21.19 karats) is worth \$18.60 a Troy

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ounce. (Deposits of uncurrent or mutilat-
ed gold and silver coins of the United
States, when presented in sums of three
dollars and upwards will be received and
paid for as standard metal).

Such bullion (as mentioned above) is
delivered by the individual to the deposit
weigh room, (persons at a distance can
employ the express companies or their
business correspondents to deposit for
them). The deposit is then weighed by
the weigh clerk, in the presence of the
depositor or his agent, and the weight ver-
ified by the registrar of deposits. For
the weight before melting a receipt is
given to the depositor. The name of the
depositor, the number and date of each
deposit, kind of bullion, carefully observ-
ing character of metal, is entered in the
respective books of the weigh clerk and
registrar.

"The deposit is at once placed in a cop-
per box, locked and sent to the deposit
melting room. After being melted it is
returned to the weigh room and re-weigh-
ed and carefully recorded in the books of
the weigh clerk and registrar. The weigh
clerk then delivers to the assayer from
each parcel of bullion a sufficient portion
for assay.

"As soon as the weight after melting
and after deduction on base bullion of
which the alloy contains substance other
than copper, the weigh clerk transcribes
the date of the deposit, name of the de-
positor, description of bullion, weight af-
ter melting and deduction upon a blank
called the assayer's report. This is tak-
en to the assayer. He inserts the fine-
ness of the gold and silver contained in
the deposit. He also inserts in his report
the charges to which the deposit is sub-
ject. (The charges for working are only
the actual cost). He then returns the
report to the abstract clerk for calcula-
tion to determine the value of the deposit.
The correctness of the calculation must
be verified by the assayer.

A warrant of the net value of the de-
posit is made in the name of the de-
positor, which the depositor receives when
he surrenders his receipt the second or

OUR ALASKAN

third day after he has made his deposit. Accompanying the warrant, which is cashed by the cashier, is a detailed memorandum, giving the loss in melting fineness of the bullion, charges imposed and the net value of the bullion.

Silver bullion is not purchased at the mint, excepting the small quantities contained in gold deposits. Silver bullion can be received only on deposit payable in fine bars."

There have been small quantities of Alaskan and Klondike gold presented at the Philadelphia Mint, but the great mass of precious metal from those regions finds its way into the mint at San Francisco.

The United States has its mints at Philadelphia, Pa.; San Francisco, Cal.; New Orleans, La., and Carson City, Nev., and assay offices at New York City, Denver, Col.; Boise, Idaho; Helena, Montana; Charlotte, N. C.; St. Louis, Mo., and Deadwood, South Dakota.

The coinage operations, however, have been discontinued at New Orleans and Carson, work being limited to assaying.

All foreign gold received at the United States mints and assay offices is melted and assayed before payment is made in United States gold coin. The Bank of England and Bank of France purchase United States gold coin by weight and carry the amount as part of the bank's gold assets. When gold is required for export to the United States these banks sell us gold coin.

The quantity of precious metals operated upon in the United States mints and assay offices in 1897 exceeded 627 tons of gold and 3,147 tons of silver.

The original deposits of gold aggregated 4,676,429.404 standard ounces, valued at \$87,003,337.71, and of silver 8,138,216.99 standard ounces, at a coining value in standard silver dollars of \$9,470,623.26.

The official report of R. E. Preston, Director of the Mint, shows coinage of 566,290 pieces of gold, value \$71,646,705, and 34,104,150 pieces of silver of the face value of \$24,327,786.65.

The total product of the mines in the United States in 1896 was, gold, \$53,088,-

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000; silver, commercial value, \$39,655,000; coining value, \$76,069,000. In both gold and silver the United States produced more than any other nation on the globe, the next in rank being Australia and Africa in gold, and Mexico and Australasia in silver.

The total coinage of the United States, 1897, was, gold, \$71,646,705; silver standard dollars, \$21,203,701; subsidiary silver, \$3,124,085.65; total, silver, \$24,327,786.65; nickel and bronze was \$984,509.59, or a total of new coins struck off by "Uncle Sam," \$96,959,001.24. The total coinage of the world in 1896 was, gold, \$195,899,517; silver, \$153,395,740.

In this list the United States again sets the pace of nations and distances by almost one-half the combined efforts of all competitors in the race.

TRANSPORTATION,

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXVIII.

A Perplexing Problem in the Development of Vast Alaskan Resources.

Ocean Steamers, River Steamboats and Canoes for Summer--Reindeer Express for Winter.

Obstacles to Travel and Traffic Through Mountain Passes and Over Sphagnum Areas.

The physical conditions of Alaska present features which make the means of travel and transportation a perplexing problem. Lying upon both sides of the Arctic circle, reaching over 1,000 statute miles to the south, and nearly 500 miles to the north of it, its climatic conditions range from excessive humidity to almost the limits of frigidity. Its coast is fringed with islands, between which winds an almost incomprehensible net-work of tidal water ways. Its interior, much broken by lofty mountains, is separated from ocean service by a continuation of the same towering range, which begins at the utmost ant-Arctic point of South America in the Andes, and unites in the Rocky Coast and St. Elias ranges, in Alaska.

The inland is also traversed by innumerable rivers, some ranking among the largest in the world. The surface of Continental Alaska is covered with a heavy

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growth of Arctic moss and beneath this is a crust frozen fast the year round to an unknown depth. Even in the height of summer these conditions are not released below a depth of two feet.

In the face of such an array of physical facts railroad building and operating, except by some yet uninvented method, would be difficult. No doubt these obstacles might be overcome by the ingenuity of the American mind, but pending development in population and industry less expensive methods must be introduced.

The horse, the mule, the ox, the llama, or any of the beasts of burden of milder latitudes are unsuited. Even the dog, which has hitherto been the chief reliance on land of native, trader, prospector and miner, does not meet the requirements of the now rapidly expanding situation. This is due not only to his minimum capacity, but is also owing to the large share of transportation, in itself very limited, expended in carrying the animal's own food.

The dog is useful only in winter for sledge travel. No pack or draught animal can traverse Alaska over the soaked moss-covered land surface in summer.

The wooden canoe and biadarka of mooseskin are the sole means of interior travel and transportation during the two or three months of summer and the dog or man sled has been the only means available during the nine months of winter.

Since the menacing diminution of the marine and land food supply of the natives, the demands of the increasing population engaged in gold and other industrial development, and the consequent increase of travel and traffic, the only known practicable system which can meet the winter necessities is the utilization of the domesticated reindeer. This experiment commenced under the auspices of private liberality and since fostered and extended by the Government, has been one of the most interesting and satisfactory solutions of an economic problem yet undertaken by the people and Government of the United States.

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The reliance of the Government in the future for military, mail and other official purposes and of the inhabitants, native or exotic, in winter for their convenience and supply is the reindeer. The characteristics and economic value of these Arctic sphagnum-eating animals, have been given in the chapter on "Eskimo-Americans." In summer the fleet steamers, great and small, convey passengers and merchandise along the ocean coast, tidal bays, inlets, canals, passages and straits.

The skin kyaek and biadarka and wooden canoes of the country, paddled and punned along the rivers, have been supplemented by the river steamers on the navigable streams.

The rivers are the roads of the country. It is not likely that there ever will be any other on terra-firma except in mountain passes on mountain sides and over short portages over the divides between the different water systems.

Among the most interesting features of the topography is the extensive system of inland water highways and short portages, saving sometimes scores upon scores of miles in reaching distant points.

This is forcibly illustrated in South-eastern Alaska where a portage of 23 miles will carry traffic or travel from tide-water at Dyea to the head of canoe navigation across the Chilkoot Pass in the Coast range at Lake Lindeman at the headwaters of the Yukon. About 108 miles farther on canoes will reach Lake Labarge below the dangerous White Horse Rapids. Thence small river craft, paddle or steam, can proceed with safety to the sea nearly 2,000 miles distant, passing en route the rich Upper Yukon placer regions of Klondike and Alaska.

The ocean and Yukon route for the transportation of travel and merchandise is by far the best, at present at least.

Starting at San Francisco it is 2,369 miles to Unalaska; 770 miles to St. Michael; 500 miles on the Yukon to Circle City, the metropolis of the United States Birch Creek mines; 350 miles to Forty-Mile, and 50 miles to Dawson, the metropolis of the Klondike placers, or a total of 4,030 miles. The distance from Portland

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would be shorter, and from Seattle 414 miles shorter than from San Francisco.

The Yukon route, except from June to September, is not feasible. But during that period it is decidedly the most comfortable and convenient, and all things considered, by far the cheapest.

The cabin and second-class rates of fare are reasonable, and will doubtless be cheaper in view of competition.

The allowance of baggage, outfit and supplies free is liberal. Extra supplies in any quantity can be taken, if paid for as freight. Also a large quantity of stores will always be found on hand, not only by the trading companies but by merchants engaged in the ordinary walks of trade.

There is no doubt that St. Michael, if the placers of the Upper Yukon be succeeded by the discovery of the gold lodes from which they derived their supplies undoubtedly by glacial action, will become a "city" of considerable population and extensive trade, ocean, coastwise and inland.

It is already the metropolis of the Arctic regions of the western side of the American hemisphere, and is destined to be the most important, if not the only community of any size on the northern cap of the globe.

In the winter, even though shut off from ocean communication on account of ice, there will be maintained reindeer communication down the coast with steamer points.

These fleet and hardy animals, driven by United States Eskimos in light service, make their 80 to 100 miles a day and feed themselves. For freighting a single animal can draw on a sled 300 to 500 pounds.

The same months of "closed season" at St. Michael finds the Coast range pass routes difficult and dangerous if not impassable for even travel for more than small parties and even for them the trip is foolhardy on account of the terrific blizzards which sweep for days at a time over these passes carrying with them enormous

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falls of snow which drive in great masses. In the spring and summer months the miners go in, but their return gold laden or "busted," as the umpire fortune has decreed, is down the current of the Yukon to St. Michael with the ice in spring or the flood in summer.

The introduction of an adequate river steamer service will at once open the great valley of the Yukon to development in the lines of industry to which it is adapted by nature, gold leading the way.

In the earlier days the different points of the interior were connected by trails which were used by the hardy hunters and traders. The Dalton Trail, one of the most famous, began at the Chilkat River at the head of that inlet of Lynn Canal, about 60 miles west of Dyea, and after traversing over three degrees of latitude, about 225 miles, struck the Yukon at Fort Selkirk at the junction of the Lewis and Pelly rivers.

The Rivers Copper and Tanana, a branch of the Yukon; Copper and Sushitna; Tanana and the White, and Sushitna and Kuskokwim, and the Kuskokwim and Yukon, the latter only six miles apart, are connected by short trails by means of which the natives can portage their biadarkas and effects from one river system to the other during their summer pursuit of game.

The most remarkable of the portage routes of Alaska which would be promptly utilized should the development of the region north of the Alaskan Peninsula demand quicker facilities of intercourse, is one of 25 miles from Cook Inlet, opposite the active volcano of Augustine Island to Lake Iliamna and thence into Bristol Bay on the north side by the Kvickpak River, a distance of about 150 miles. The journey down the peninsula alone to the usual pass for vessels through the Aleutian Islands, is not less than 450 miles.

It is easier, however, for the gold seekers of "the States" to reach the placers of the Upper Yukon either by the coast range passes or St. Michael, than it was for the "Forty-niners" to reach the placers of California in their day. It is

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infinitely less dangerous, as there are no savage, scalping enemies, nor isthmian fevers to be encountered. The only dangers are those incident to an arctic winter, which can be overcome with suitable clothing and ample food.

The cost of the necessities of life in all cases is measured by the cost of production and handling plus the cost of transportation to point of consumption. The prices at Sitka, Juneau or other points accessible to steamers at all seasons of the year are not unreasonable. Flour at Sitka at \$6 a barrel will bring \$24 on the Klondike. Pork, 40 cents a pound, and all other articles in that proportion. Lime juice for scurvy, the bane of the mining camps, is not dear at \$2.50 a gallon. This difference is due entirely to difficulties of transportation.

A grown native packer, weighing about 140 pounds, will carry from 100 to 130 pounds, and boys 12 to 14 years of age, from 50 to 70 pounds. The women carry almost as much as the men.

The human packers can be utilized to advantage only in the mountain passes and for short distances. From 10 to 25 miles a day under favorable conditions is the limit. Their food is an important item of weight.

The establishment of packing routes from tide water to canoe navigation over the passes would obviate much food transportation, as the packers will then have halting stations and reliefs. This method costs alone from 15 to 30 cents a pound from tide to canoe waters over the coast range.

The packing by mules with the improvement of the trails would be feasible in summer through the passes only, but not under existing conditions in the open country of the mainland.

The best animal will transport 200 to 250 pounds, a large portion of which will be taken up in food for itself and will cover no more distance than a man in a day and only for short portages.

The dog will carry about 33 pounds for short distances and 25 pounds all day in

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summer on very little food. The species is about 20 inches high and somewhat resembles the "Spitz" breed.

The dog industry has been the subject of interesting official communication with the United States Department of State by the United States Consul at Vancouver, British Columbia, who has reported the arrival before January, 1898, of over 300 trained draught dogs, purchased by enterprising individuals in Belgium, Holland, Newfoundland and at other points where this faithful animal is used as a means of transportation. They brought from \$15.00 and upwards a dog, and were shipped to Dyea and Skaguay Pass routes. Their food consists of biscuits or dried salmon, and not in large quantities.

The reindeer cannot be utilized in summer. In winter wherever moss grows one of these valuable animals, combining all the qualities of man, horse, mule, ox and dog for burden, and clean animals for food flesh and milk and clothing, will transport on a sled at one time more than man, mule and dog combined, will traverse from three to five times the distance, will feed and care for itself at the end of the journey and in an extremity will furnish food, which sometimes constitutes the last thread of relief and safety.

The utilization of the reindeer as a means of transportation will also be adapted to the transportation of the mails and will therefore be of immense value to trade and commerce. The increasing number of whalers which winter at Herschell Island, off the British-Canadian Arctic coast, about midway between Mackenzie Bay on the east and the international boundary toward the west, the United States stations at Point Barrow, and the mines of the Upper Yukon can thus be brought into mail communication with the outer world during the long arctic winter, meaning thousands in money to the trading and other companies of the "States" interested in Alaskan industrial operations.

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The feasibility of the scheme is undoubted. The reindeer mail and light transportation from the whaling fleet to the Fort Yukon, 500 miles, taking in the settlements on the way and thence about 800 miles along the Upper Yukon to Selkirk and thence onward over the Coast range to the open ports of South-eastern Alaska, accessible by ocean steamers, would constitute one route.

From Point Barrow along the coast to the southward, at intervals of 200 to 500 miles are trading, fishing and missionary stations. The Point Barrow United States Whaling, Refuge and Signal Stations, Presbyterian Mission and Government schools could be brought into communication by reindeer express, 300 miles to Point Hope, north of Kotzebue Sound, also a whaling station and Episcopal Mission; thence southeast 500 miles to Nulato on the Yukon as a central point.

The Bering Strait's Reindeer Express might establish intercourse from Cape Prince of Wales, the Congregational Mission, the central reindeer station of Port Clarence, the Golovin Bay Swedish Mission, to Nulato, on the Point Barrow route.

The reindeer trunk route proceeding thence on its southward route could pick up the mails at a number of trading posts and mission stations, crossing the Peninsula of Alaska to Katmai, on Shelikoff Straits, a distance of 500 miles, where it would connect with the regular steamship line to San Francisco.

Another route taking its start at Nushagak or Carmel, on Bristol Bay, a Moravian Mission and school, a Russo-Greek Mission and location of several large canneries, might take on the way the Moravian station at Quinehaha and salmon canneries near Bethel, a Moravian Mission and trading station 400 miles distant. Thence up the Kuskokwim taking in several missions and thence across to the Yukon at Ikogmute, thence up the Yukon touching several points by way of Anvik, to St. Michael and Unalaklik, to Nulato, about 500 miles from Bethel.

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This would make Nulato the central re-
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reindeer system from Point Barrow, Cape
Prince of Wales, Carmel and the Yukon
trunk lines. Thence it would continue to
St. James' Episcopal Mission, 200 miles
up the Yukon, thence to Fort Yukon, 250
miles, connecting with the line from the
whaling fleet, thence to Circle City,
the Alaskan and Dawson City, the Klondike
mining stations, thence to steamer
point on Lynn Canal in Southeastern
Alaska. The trunk line with branches
would give a reindeer route of 4,000
miles. The Katmai and Nutchek routes
1,000 miles more.

With ocean and river steamers in sum-
mer and reindeer routes in the winter,
the transportation question in Alaska will
be shorn of many of its complications and
hardships.

There are reconnoissances now being
made in expectation of finding an over-
land route entirely on United States soil
to the United States gold mines on Forty
Mile, Birch and other rivers in order to
minimize the length and cost of land
transportation.

The Cook Inlet route by the Sushitna
and portage to the Tanana is supposed
to afford such a route. The distance
across does not exceed 300 miles. From
the lake in which the Sushitna rises to
the nearest point on the Tanana does not
exceed 50 miles. The Tanana enters the
Yukon at St. James' Mission, many miles
above its mouth. The Copper River also
affords a route with a short portage to the
Yukon. A route from the coast near
Mount St. Elias to the White River tribu-
tary of the Yukon above the Klondike is
being explored. If possible it will be the
shortest distance from the coast across
country, not exceeding 300 miles. The
absence of a harbor would be an objec-
tion, but the route would save enormously
in transportation in limited amounts.
Yakutat Harbor might be utilized, al-
though a little east.

The War Department has organized a
military expedition up the Copper River
to map out the topography of the river

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now little known and to finally establish the value of that route to the gold field of Alaska and Klondike.

It will always be necessary for individuals or trading companies to carry at least one year's supply of food in the Yukon region, or, in fact, any portion of Alaska north of Unalaska until other facilities of communication are introduced for inland water transportation. This may be accomplished only by reindeer carrying companies in winter.

The question of outfit is a leading one. This at present can be accomplished at any of the points of departure of steamer lines from "the States." The almost insurmountable obstacle is the means of its transportation to destination.

In every direction efforts are being made to solve, as much as possible, by appliances on land this difficult problem. The brevity of the season of inland river navigation alone stands in the way. If the future development of the Yukon and other regions justify it a sufficient accumulation of food and merchandise at St. Michael for the winter reindeer distribution on the Yukon from all the year round ocean ports on the coast south of the Alaskan Peninsula for the Copper and White River overland winter reindeer routes to the Yukon mining towns and camps now being explored, would immensely simplify the situation. The coast range pass routes for winter transportation can hardly be utilized, not only on account of the terrific and prolonged storms of wind and snow in the passes themselves, but also on account of the impassible condition of the rivers beyond except in summer.

The tunnelling of the passes would be feasible, but would hardly be justifiable as a business proposition until population and industry were permanently established in the region.

At present more time and money is consumed in travel and transportation of outfits reduced to the lowest limit from the coast at Juneau, Dena and Skaguay over the Chilkoot and White Passes, 130

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miles to the head of Lake Labarge, at the head of possible stream navigation on the Upper Yukon, than is required from the Atlantic to the Pacific coast and thence by steamer to the ocean ports named on Lynn Canal.

And still beyond Labarge is a stretch of river transportation of 247 miles from Selkirk and 395 miles more to Circle City.

There is no question with the problem of transportation brought up to the same capacity as the facilities of the open water and a corresponding economy of toll and cheapness of rates, the Chilkoot White Pass and St. Michael water routes would absorb practically the entire Upper Yukon travel and traffic.

Capt. P. H. Ray, representing the War Department, reported from Alaska, 1898, that the greater part of the Yukon gold belt is in United States territory in the Upper Rampart Range and along the Tanana River, Minook Birch, Forty Mile creeks. United States Courier Wells adds Sixty and Seventy Mile creeks, the Copper and Sushitra rivers, the latter prominent through Cook Inlet placers. On the Kuskokwim explorations will also develop immense mineral wealth, judging from native reports and surface indications. Capt. Ray suggested that a railroad from the head of Cook Inlet or Prince William Sound to the mouth of the Tanana, thence by steamer in summer on the Yukon and tributaries and Reindeer Express in winter, would solve the problem of an all-winter route to open ocean connections, and would control the entire trade of the region against Canadian competition.

[For Official Table of Distances See Page 352.]

Alaskan Administration

Our Alaskan Wonderland

LETTER NUMBER XXIX.

While Government Lagged, Vast Wealth Advanced Apace.

Departmental Efficiency and Mis- sionary Zeal.

A Massacre Averted Through the Loyalty of a Native Chief.

In our story, "Unfurling the Flag," the pomp and circumstance of territorial transition from Russian to United States jurisdiction was portrayed in detail.

The little army of occupation consisting of 256 officers and men of the Second United States Artillery and Ninth United States Infantry, under Brevet Major General Jefferson C. Davis, colonel Twenty-third United States Infantry, left San Francisco, California, September 24th, 1867, for New Archangel, the seat of Russian government and was followed by the United States Steamer Ossipee, bearing the commissioners and a representative of the Russian Fur Company, which then held a trading license from the imperial government.

On October 29th, the troops, which had returned to the transport to await the departure of the Russian officials and soldiers, again landed and the post of Sitka was established with General Davis in command of the district of Alaska.

The natives, sullen and hostile, at first, under the firm course of General Davis, sustained by the menacing guns of the battery soon changed their attitude to friendship and submission.

OUR ALASKAN

In the spring of 1868 a new site for the Sitka post was located on Admiralty Island. Another post was established on the southeastern end of Tongass Island, near the fighting line of 54-40, called Fort Tongass, to prevent smuggling, and a third on the northwestern extremity of Wrangel Island, near the mouth of the Stickeen River, called Fort Wrangel, to prevent illicit trade with the Indians and to preserve the peace between the British and American tribes trading or fishing in the vicinity of the frontier channels.

In 1868 four more batteries of the Second Artillery were sent to Alaska and distributed among the posts. In the same year Fort Kadiak was established at St. Paul on the northeastern point of Kadiak Island, which, however, was reduced in April, 1869, for the old Russian fort, St. Nicholas, on the Cook Inlet side of Kenai Peninsula, which received the name Kenai.

A small detachment was also dispatched to the Pribilof fur seal islands of St. Paul and St. George, which had been made a public reserve by resolution of Congress.

The act of July 27th, 1868, was the first move of Congress toward civil administration by making Alaska a customs collection district, prohibiting the "sale of firearms, ammunition and distilled spirits" and applying to it the laws of Oregon.

The United States ship *Saginaw* and several revenue cutters patrolled the Alaskan Gulf and Bering Sea.

In 1870 the troops at Tongass, Wrangel, Kadiak, Kenai, St. Paul and St. George were called in. On October 7th, 1870, the garrison at Sitka alone represented the army in Alaska, and the Department of Alaska was discontinued.

For the next five years there was little duty for the army.

The Treasury Department was now in control, maintaining a customs and revenue collector at Sitka.

The discovery of gold in 1875 along the Stickeen River attracted thither a rush of miners and a thousand Indians of the valley. These inharmonious elements led to

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1867-1876
The Author

Interviewing Secretary Seward.

the re-establishment of Fort Wrangel in that year.

The outbreak of the Nez Perce Indians "in the States" in 1877 caused the hurried departure of the garrisons at Sitka and Wrangel in June of that year.

The labor riots later and the inadequate numbers of the army terminated the military occupation of Alaska.

For nearly a year after this enormous territory, having an area equal to ten average States of the Union, was governed by the United States Treasury Department through a deputy collector, supported by a small armament of two cases of rifles and two cases of ammunition, which had been shipped to the Sitka office.

In July, 1878, a collector of customs invested with the additional functions of probate judge put in an appearance.

In 1879 the Sitka natives, noticing the neglect of the Washington Government armed and organized for a raid on the white settlement for murder and plunder. But for the friendly aid of a native leader, Onnahootz and his Kokwaton followers, the bloody intent of the Sitka tribes would doubtless have been carried out and the blood of the unoffending victims would have been upon the Congress of the United States.

The Washington authorities now for a short time reduced United States citizens on their own soil to the humiliating attitude of seeking and accepting foreign protection until the United States Steamer Alaska came to their relief.

After this experience Alaska was practically in the custody of the Navy Department. These officers were active in repressing the natives and particularly in suppressing the manufacture of a fighting and murderous rum called Hoo-chi-noo; freeing those held in bondage and putting an end to the atrocities of the natives against the so-called witches.

The naval regime was also characterized by the officers assisting and encouraging the Protestant missionaries who began their labors as early as 1877, by the establishment of religious worship, churches and schools.

OUR ALASKAN

Under the naval regime there was a feeling of security which soon encouraged the prospector to start in search of rich placers in the interior, while others were developing quartz lodes near Sitka. The fish industry also began to show signs of enterprise.

Although the army was never officially released from duty in Alaska, the peaceful condition of affairs did not demand its presence until the discovery of gold on the upper Yukon, and more recently on the Klondike, requiring the return of a small force for operations on the American side of the line.

To the inertness of Congress is entirely due the many obstacles which have been encountered in the development of the marvelous resources of Alaska. This was particularly the case with respect to the public lands in early years. The attempts of citizens of the United States to secure preemption rights to lands at Sitka and elsewhere were ignored. The valuable forests accordingly were being despoiled and agriculture without tenure in the soil was paralyzed.

In looking back over the period since Alaska first came under the jurisdiction of civilized government we find a steady progression of events beginning with

1728-41—Discoveries of Vitus Bering and others.

1781-8—St. Paul on Kadiak Island established and made the seat of government of New Russia.

1787—Mainland occupied.

1790—Shelikof Trading Company created Chief directors and ex-officio governors—Delaref. 1792—Alexander Baranof.

1799—Russian-American Fur Company organized Governors—Baranof, Hagenmeister. 1820—Muravief. 1825—Christakof. 1831—Wrangel. 1836—Kapreanof. 1840—Etolin. 1848—Woiwodsky. 1860—Furujeln.

1864—Extension of Russian-American Fur Company refused—Prince Makuskof, Imperial Governor.

1867-77—Military occupation.

1868—A customs and revenue collection

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district established with a collector in charge.

1870—The United States Navy Department in control through commanders of vessels.

1884—John H. Kinkead, Nevada. 1885—A. P. Swineford, Michigan. 1889—Lyman E. Knapp, Vermont. 1893—James Sheakley, Pennsylvania. 1897—John G. Brady, Alaska. United States Governors.

It was not until May 17th, 1884, seventeen years after the cession and seven years after the withdrawal of the army that an organized civil government was established under a specific act of Congress.

The leading details of this primitive form of "district" government I have given under the title, "Alaskan Possibilities."

Under the act the Governor appointed by the President administered the law under the Department of the Interior and made a report each year upon the administrative and economic condition of affairs in the "district." A district judge tried causes and commissioners at different points exercised civil and judicial functions.

Beyond this the executive departments have taken an active part within their respective lines of official duty.

Under the Treasury Department the customs district of Alaska was established with the port of entry at Sitka and sub-ports at St. Michael, Unga, Juneau, Unalaska, Mary Island, Kadiak, Wrangel, Circle City, Cook Inlet, Karuk and Dyea.

Under the same department the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey portrayed both Alaskan seas and Alaskan coasts in a series of excellent charts and maps.

The channels, bays, harbors and coasts as the interests of commerce require, have been buoyed and beacons. The beaming rays of the light-houses at salient points on tidal waters stand forth like the out-flame of civilization, pointing the way in a portion of the globe a few years ago wrapped in solitude.

OUR ALASKAN

The Revenue Marine Service combined efficient official duty with equally efficient research.

The War Department, through the army and the services of such soldierly as well as scientific officers as Raymond, Schwatka, Allen, and others, have conducted extensive military reconnaissances of Alaska, as to the topographical, ethnological and physical resources of the country.

The officers of the army on duty during the military occupation not only contributed much valuable scientific and practical information concerning their immediate vicinity but the ladies of their families were the very foremost in efforts to Christianize, educate and civilize the children of the natives in barrack Sunday, secular and sewing schools.

The Navy Department, through its vessels of war, besides patrolling Alaskan waters, extended a helping hand to infant settlements and in opening the sealed book of Alaska and its many wonders.

The Department of Justice weighed fairly the rights of individuals, business and society in the adjudication of causes.

The Post Office Department extended the convenience of its mail facilities wherever the growth of the country or the interests of the inflowing population demanded, whether along the ocean front, on the islands of the sea or on the banks of the Upper Yukon or other streams penetrating the interior.

Over the Alaskan and Klondike mining route a letter mail was established, leaving the first of each month and returning, carried by dog trains in winter, boats, canoes and on the backs of native carriers in summer from Juneau by Dyea, Alaska, 100 miles; Dawson City (Klondike), 575 miles; Forty-Mile, 52 miles, and Fort Oudahy, 1 mile, in Canada, to Circle City, on the Yukon in Alaska, 240 miles, making a total of 968 miles, each way requiring thirty days, for which the contractor receives \$6,900 a year for one round trip a month, not including Canadian offices. There are other inland routes. There are also ocean routes from "the States" to

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Sitka and intermediate points, 1,100 miles, five times a month in summer and twice a month in winter, \$18,000 a year, and Sitka by way of Yakutat, Nutchek, Homer, Kadiak, Kaluk, Sandpoint, Unga and Belkofsky to Unalaska, 1,516 miles, fourteen days and back once a month from April to October in each year at \$4,966 a year.

There are also local routes among the coast stations.

During the previous times at Circle City the large number of gold miners concentrated there depended upon chance to send out letters which cost \$1.00 each to the coast. In 1896 the Government carriers on this route carried more than 1,000 letters on a single trip. The same year the department made two despatches by steamer of newspapers and parcels from Seattle to points on the Yukon by way of Unalaska and St. Michael and two from San Francisco.

In 1897, for the convenience of interior settlements an interchange was established between Dyea, Alaska, and Dawson City, Canada, and a joint arrangement was made between the United States and Canada for the transportation of the mails between those points, one round trip once a month. In winter these mails must be transported by dog teams and sleds and is attended with a degree of hardship and endurance and often suffering, probably unequalled anywhere in the world.

Under the Department of the Interior the office of education out of the Government appropriations ranging from \$15,000 to \$50,000 since 1886 has maintained 20 day schools in different parts of the entire district, with about 1,300 pupils.

It also introduced and carried to a successful solution the reindeer problem as a food supply and means of Arctic transportation.

The United States Geological Survey produced through its corps of scientific specialists, many valuable papers upon the physical characteristics, resources and wonders of Alaskan lands.

The United States Commission of Fish and Fisheries scientifically investigated

OUR ALASKAN

and exploited the enormous existing and ever replenishing wealth of the rivers and seas in fish.

The Department of Agriculture instituted examinations and reported upon the agricultural possibilities of Alaska.

The Smithsonian Institute, the very first in the field of scientific inquiry, evolved out of its early researches fresh acquisitions to the realms of knowledge from Alaskan fields.

In every branch of departmental service in the absence of legislation our vast northern Pacific possessions have been managed with efficient administration and scientific zeal.

And prominent in our summary of civilizing influences must be mentioned the missionary work of the divers religious faiths—Greco-Russian, Evangelical and Roman.

The Evangelical denominations carried a gospel religion consonant with the allegiance and principles of a true citizen of the Republic of the United States into the iglus and villages of native races, which had never known any form of religion. They established religious stations and churches, Sabbath, day, sewing and industrial schools. They co-operated with and supplemented the efforts of the Government Office of Education by the offices of religion in elevating the intellectual, economic and social condition of the aboriginal people.

The successful labors of the Russian Bishop Veniaminof among the Aleuts are apparent in the higher standard of that aquatic race.

In 1877, ten years after the cession of the territory to the United States, the light of the gospel first began to penetrate the Alaskan darkness. The depths of human depravity manifested in exorcising incantations, tortures, witchcraft, have been lessened largely through missionary effort.

The rising generation of natives in South-eastern Alaska along the Upper Yukon, and even in the frozen Arctic circle, are rapidly acquiring the language and reading and writing of the United States.

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As a race, the natives of Alaska, un-
like our other aboriginal populations, are
eager to learn, live and labor like the civ-
ilized white man.

Their undoubted Mongolian origin hav-
ing born in them habits and ideas at var-
iance with the methods and customs of
American citizens, particularly the sale
of daughters by their parents, such prac-
tices have been vigorously combatted by
the representatives of Christian influence.

The press, the guiding light of modern
progress, has already taken its place along
the frontier line of advancing civilization.
The capital Sitka has its weekly Alas-
kan and monthly North Star; Juneau has
its weekly Alaska Mining Record, Alaska
Search Light and Alaska Miner, and
Fort Wrangel its monthly Northern
Light.

Doubtless in the not remote future we
will hear the shouts of Point Barrow
Aurora Borealis by Eskimo newsboys.

Then it will be about time to unfurl the
star spangled banner of the Republic from
the North Pole. Suppress Canada in her
irritating policy, and bid defiance to the
world in the progress of peaceful arts.

A consensus of opinion in official and
unofficial correspondence from Alaska,
the Pacific States and all sections of the
Union, indicate that under the impulse of
gold and other sources of natural wealth
in Alaska a large influx of population will
take place in the immediate future.

This new "rush" will, if the reports re-
ceived at Washington be realized, exceed
in fervor and numbers the migrations
toward the "El Dorado" of the Pacific
during the California excitement of
"Forty-nine" and subsequent stampedes
for the golden placers and lodes of the
Pacific Coast and Rocky Mountain
States and Territories.

To meet this sudden exigency of an enor-
mous influx of population in a region un-
prepared by a home supply of food and
raiment, will present a problem more seri-
ous and perplexing than the Government
and local conditions have ever confront-
ed in the United States. That Congress
having failed to afford adequate means

OUR ALASKAN WONDERLAND

of administration for such numbers will be brought face to face with a grave crisis is apparent. That some of the elements of this great mass of humanity, irritated by disappointment, if not crazed by hunger and expended funds, will resort to disorder and force, is natural to suppose. A solitary Governor and a lone judge under such conditions is likely to emphasize the past apathy of the national law-makers.

The population, by the census of 1890, stated at 32,052, has been largely augmented owing to the discovery of valuable mines and development of other resources. The new towns and villages which have sprung up; the extension of trade and the starting of new industries, led to the act of June 4th, 1897, making temporary provisions for the emergency by the creation of four additional Commissioners. On June 24th, same year, a surveyor general was provided for and an additional land office created.

The Secretary of the Interior, in his report for 1897 recommended the extension of the public land laws to the district, the creation of additional land offices, the granting of rights of way for railroads, telegraphs and telephones, the construction of roads and trails, the incorporation of municipalities, the holding of elections, the defining of the legal and political status of the natives and the establishment of complete territorial government, with representation in Congress.

The Secretary also suggested the division of Alaska into two territories, the coast country from the southern boundary to the mouth of the Yukon, including the islands, to form one government, and the remaining portion the other.

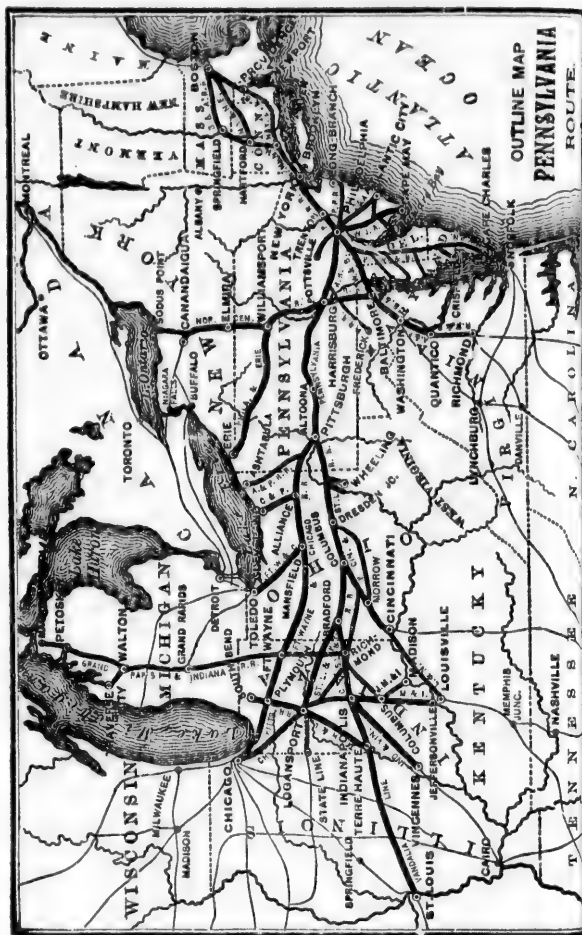
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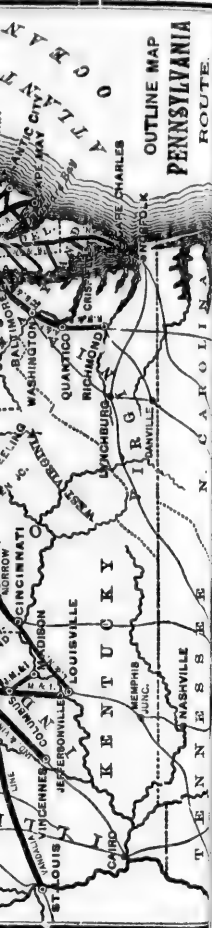
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"ALL ABOARD."

LETTER NUMBER XXX.

**Railway-Ocean-River Routes
to Coast Range Portals and
Yukon Gateways to Alaskan
and Klondike Gold Fields.**

**The New Century World-Round
Journey for American "Globe
Trotters"---From Washing-
ton to St. Petersburg,
Paris and London via
Alaskan Route.**

The Pennsylvania Railroad, like the great Commonwealth from which it takes its name, is the Keystone of the magnificent system of railways which connects the metropolitan cities of the Atlantic seaboard with the lines extending still westward from the Great Lakes and the Mississippi River to the shores of the Pacific. It may well be accepted as the standard railway of America.

It is the most central of the Eastern trunk lines to Chicago and St. Louis, where the journey across the continent actually begins and over its own lines and through those co-operating with it almost any portion of the American Continent, in railroad or steamer touch with the rest of the world, may be reached.

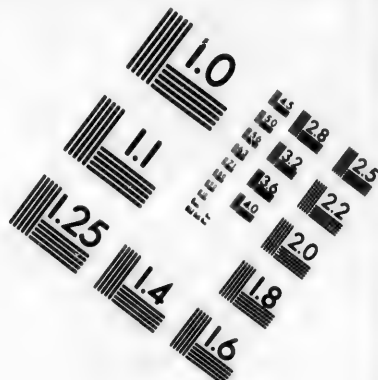
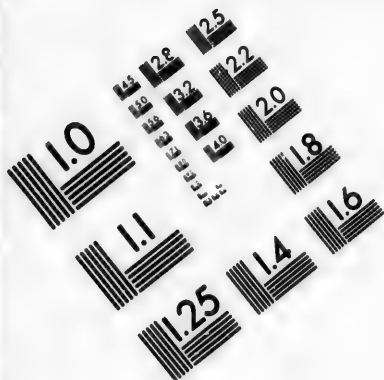
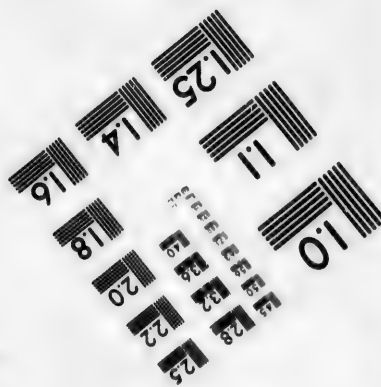
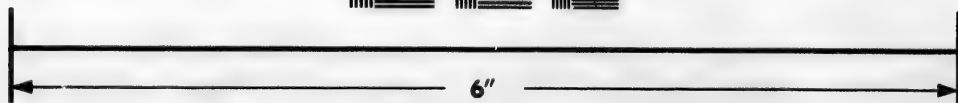
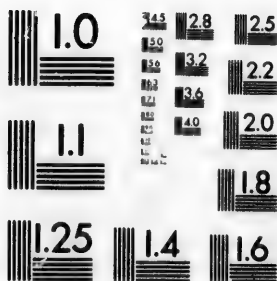


IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (MT-3)



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23 WEST MAIN STREET
WEBSTER, N.Y. 14580
(716) 872-4503

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OUR ALASKAN

A glance at the outline map will show the immense facilities of intercourse open to the traveler.

From the Atlantic seaboard metropolis, New York, it requires four tracks to accommodate its enormous business. At Philadelphia, the manufacturing metropolis of the Union it has accommodations for travel and traffic unrivaled in the world.

Its route also lies through the most populous, wealthy and scenically picturesque Commonwealths. Starting at New York, it traverses New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois. It also passes through some of the finest cities. Its service and the speed and safety of its trains are unrivaled in the world. It is equipped with the finest roadbed; the heaviest steel rails; all the modern improvements in block signals and other appliances. It has the largest and best locomotives built and the latest and best coaches and sleeping and buffet cars designed.

The Pennsylvania Limited is without a peer in the railway trains of the world. It is composed exclusively of Pullman vestibule, drawing-room, state-room, sleeping, dining, smoking and observation cars, each a miniature palace on wheels.

The run from New York to Chicago is 24 hours; 912 miles. To St. Louis, 30 hours; 1,065 miles.

The Philadelphia & Reading Railway, one of the very first steam railways built in the United States, through its Bound Brook route to Philadelphia and thence over one of its numerous branches through Central Pennsylvania, connects for the West at either South Bethlehem via Bethlehem branch, or at Allentown, via East Penn branch; at either place connecting with the Lehigh Valley Railroad, thence to Buffalo, where connections are made with either the Grand Trunk (Canadian) system or the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern, New York, Chicago & St. Louis, or Michigan Central Railroads for Chicago and the West. Through

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sleeping cars for Buffalo and Chicago
leave the Reading Terminal, Philadel-
phia, twice daily.

At Harrisburg it also has connections
with the vast Pennsylvania system above
described.

The road is double tracked with steel
rails, stone ballast, and has the latest
equipment in fast locomotives and pas-
senger, parlor and sleeping cars.

At Chicago and St. Louis there is a
choice of lines, with all of which the
Pennsylvania system has direct connec-
tions and sells through tickets with Pull-
man service from New York, Philadel-
phia and at all the principal stations.

From Chicago the Chicago & North-
western and Chicago, Milwaukee and St.
Paul have a service to St. Paul and Min-
neapolis on the Mississippi and to Omaha
on the Missouri. St. Louis, over the
Missouri Pacific, also has a service to
Kansas City, 283 miles, and Omaha, 488
miles.

At St. Paul and Minneapolis there is
also a choice of two main routes, the
Great Western to Seattle, 1,823 miles; to
Portland, Ore., 1,925, or by way of the
Northern Pacific to the same points and
San Francisco.

From St. Louis, by way of Kansas
City or Omaha, the Union Pacific carries
through passengers to Kansas City, to
San Francisco, 2,093 miles; Portland, 2,-
050 miles; Tacoma, 2,196 miles; Seattle,
2,214 miles. From Omaha to San
Francisco, 1,867 miles; Portland, 1,824;
Seattle, 1,987.

The St. Louis and San Francisco
"Frisco Line" has through service from
St. Louis over its own and connecting
lines to San Francisco, 2,460 miles, and
Portland, 3,104.

The Southern Pacific, from New Or-
leans, has a service via El Paso, 1,194
miles; Los Angeles, 2,006 miles; San
Francisco, 2,489; Portland, 3,261.

The Canadian Pacific Railway, from its
United States connections, also reaches
outfitting steamer ports of the United
States on the Pacific.

From the Pennsylvania system a con-

OUR ALASKAN

nection is made at Chicago for St. Paul.

From St. Paul, at Portal, on the frontier line between the United States and Assiniboia, Canada, a distance of 560 miles, a through connection is made with the Canadian Pacific system to Vancouver, British Columbia, 2,906 miles, and United States points; Seattle, 3,000 miles; Portland, 3,185 miles; San Francisco, 3,957 miles.

The approximate average speed of transcontinental trains, including transfers and stops, is 20 miles an hour, and on ocean steamers, including delays at points en route, 7 miles an hour. The cost of railway travel is from 2 to 3 cents a mile.

It is customary to obtain steamer rates by correspondence with the office at the point of sailing.

It is not necessary to go back to the period of the "Forty-Niners" of California in order to draw the contrast between the vast savage haunted wilderness known as the Western plains, the Rockies and the Sierras, and the same region today parceled out into 14 States and Territories of the American Union and traversed by a network of steam highways of travel and traffic.

The Alaskan and Klondike gold seeker will cover as much or more ground in one hour in the railway coaches, parlors and sleepers, in this year of Grace than did the "overland emigrants" of 1849 and nearly two decades later in their bullock-power "prairie schooners," or on horse or mule back on their way to California in a whole day from dawn to dark.

The Pacific coast cities of San Francisco, Portland, Tacoma and Seattle are the sailing ports and the outfitting posts for prospectors and miners of Alaska and Klondike.

Parties for the gold fields reach Juneau or Dyea for either of the pass routes, Chilkoot or White, between the middle of March and end of April. During this period they can do their own transporting on sleighs drawn by themselves over the summits to the lakes.

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announcement are from San Francisco, Cal.; Portland, Ore.; Tacoma and Seattle, Wash., U. S., and Victoria, British Columbia. The first-class railway fare from Chicago to these points is about \$62 on any of the direct lines, first-class, and \$52 second-class.

The Pacific coast steamship company single fares range from San Francisco, first-class, to Wrangel, \$37; Juneau, \$44; Sitka, \$52; Puget Sound ports, Wrangel, \$25; Juneau, \$32; Sitka, \$40. Steerage, a trifle over one-half first-class rates. Meals and berths or bunks included. Freight rates, general merchandise and miners' ordinary supplies, Skaguay, Dyea and Sitka, about \$12 per ton. The same rates approximately apply to Taiya (Dyea), and Skaguay.

United States mail steamer connection sails from Sitka to Unalakleet.

The North American Transportation and Trading (the Government fur seal contract) Company steamers sail from Seattle to St. Michael, fare about \$125 to \$150. Thence their Yukon fleet of river boats depart at short intervals for the trading stations and gold fields of the Upper Yukon. At Weare, at the junction of the Tanana; Rampart, near Minook Creek; Fort Yukon, at the mouth of the Porcupine; Circle City, at the portage to the Birch Creek Mines, and Belle Isle in Alaska (United States); Fort Oudahy; Forty Mile and Dawson City, Northwest Territory, Canada, fare about \$100 to \$150 from St. Michael, and about \$50 less for second-class.

The Alaskan Commercial Company dispatches steamers from San Francisco to St. Michael and operate a fleet of five river boats on the Yukon at the same rates.

There is also an irregular service of "tramp" steamers.

In all cases first class includes meals and berths, and second class meals and bunks on steamers.

These rates are approximate. Any changes are more likely to be lower than higher.

OUR ALASKAN

There are also Alaskan tourist routes at reasonable round trip rates, consuming about 35 days. The inland routes from San Francisco, Portland or Seattle, among the islands of the British Columbian Coast presents a beautiful panoramic view of spruce and fir covered mountains. As the steamer crosses the 54-40 parallel and enters Southeastern Alaska and the innumerable islands of the United States Alexander archipelago the scene changes to a more Alpine appearance. The higher mountains are capped in snow and along the shores grow sub-Arctic plants and flowers.

Beyond we reach the glaciers of Glacier Bay, the Malaspina Sea of Ice and Mt. St. Elias "Corner Stone" at Yakutat and across the gulf of the Aleutian Islands at Unalaska, with an excursion to Bogeslov volcano, 40 miles distant. This trip may be extended to St. Michael and the Yukon. The round trip from Sitka to Unalaska is about \$120. The round trip from St. Paul by the North Pacific to Portland or Seattle is about \$90, subject to change. This includes meals and berths on ocean lines.

The excursion season begins in May and ends in September.

The most convenient during the three months of open season is the all water route from San Francisco by way of Unalaska to St. Michael, the shipping port of the Yukon trade and thence to trading stations and mining centers, along the river.

The distance is 3,139 miles from Portland to St. Michael, 500 miles from St. Michael to Circle City, 350 miles thence to Forty-Mile, and 50 miles thence to Dawson on the Klondike.

The entire distance is accomplished by ocean and river steamers between June and September at reasonable rates and facilities for transportation of supplies and freight with no toll or trial to the individual.

There exists an overland summer route from St. Michael along Norton Sound to the Unalaklik River, where there is a

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rivers to the Yukon, a distance of 104
miles, which makes a lessening of 361
miles in the distance to the mining cities
on the Upper Yukon, as compared with
the steam route.

This cut-off will doubtless be utilized,
if developments warrant, as it will escape
the ice gorge at the mouth of the Yukon
and makes a difference of several weeks
and possibly a whole season in the ascent
of the river.

These lines from San Francisco, Port-
land and Seattle run in connection with
the three most used and accessible coast
range passes to the headwaters of the
Yukon and thence to the gold towns and
camps.

The Chilkoot Pass over the coast range
is the shortest.

The traveler starts at Dyea and tramps
over the gravel of a broad valley to the
foot of the Chilkoot Pass; thence up the
narrowing valley to Sheep Camp, five
miles. There the ascent begins over
rocky and sometimes boggy mountain
sides with glaciers in view; thence over
great masses of rock and boulders three
miles to the summit of the pass. About
1,000 feet of the last part of the dis-
tance stands at an angle of 45 degrees,
then 800 feet more not so steep. The
hand sleds are often pulled up by the
miners splicing their ropes and the end to
a windlass. The height of the pass sum-
mit is 3,800 feet.

The descent to Lake Lindemann on the
inland side makes a fall of 1,300 feet in
9 miles.

The pass is unsuited to the use of ani-
mals of burden other than the Chilkoot
Indians, who charge from 30 to 40 cents
a pound, each packer carrying 100
pounds. They require two days going
and one returning over this distance, 24
miles.

Some idea of the trials of this portion
of the journey and the patience requir-
ed may be formed when it is known that
a 1,000-pound outfit of a single man re-

OUR ALASKAN

quires fully 30 days to move over the pass on account of the lack of transportation.

It is customary for the men to carry their own goods in detachments, about every hundred pounds requiring a trip. During the winter this, as well as other pass routes, is practically impassable on account of snow and fierce storms lasting for weeks.

Once on the other side the parties build their boats out of the wood they cut in the neighborhood and convert into planks with a whip saw. They are then ready to start when the ice moves in the lakes and rivers leading into the Yukon. From Lake Bennett to Fort Selkirk is 350 miles; thence to Klondike is 172 miles; thence to Circle City in the Alaskan mines.

There are projects to overcome this severe stretch of pass by means of tramways and other mechanical appliances, but the capacity is limited.

The White Pass, over the same range, begins at the same point in Dyea Inlet, but follows the Skaguay River to the east and unites at Tagish Lake through Summit and several other small lakes and water courses and Taku arm of Tagish.

The same difficulties are encountered in getting over this pass as at Chilkoot. This pass, however, has been improved by the expenditure of a little labor. It is claimed that \$50,000 would construct a wagon road, which would greatly reduce rates. From the coast to the summit is 17 miles, 5 miles being nearly level, 9 miles of canyon, 3 miles of easy climbing to a 2,600 foot summit. On the other side is an easy descent into the valley of the Yukon through Summit and several small lakes to Taku Arm, making a total distance of 35 miles from the starting point on tide-water, thence into Tagish.

The third of these passes, reached from the head of tide-water, on Lynn Canal, is the Chilkat. The natives claim

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this to be the best because lower and more open. Its starting point is from Pyramid Harbor on the western inlet of the canal, and is entirely over land, striking Fort Selkirk, 172 miles from Klondike. It passes through a grass country in summer and has been used for cattle driven to the Russian posts. The distance is covered in 12 days.

The erection of saw mills at Lake Bennett will greatly lessen this part of the labor. Boats can also be bought there to carry miners and their outfits to destination. At Seattle suitable boats "knocked down" can be had and transported and put together on the lake. They resemble the old-time bateau. The difficulty, however, is the transportation over the passes.

The miners with their effects in the boat or on a raft drift down the current to Fort Selkirk, 350 miles pass through some very dangerous navigation.

The features of the river from Lindemann to the Yukon mining regions of Klondike and Alaska are given in the chapter "A Wonder of Rivers."

The Taku route starts at the thrifty town of Juneau, following the Taku and other rivers into Lake Atun, whence there is an easy portage to Lake Tagish, where this route unites with the Chilkoot and White Pass routes and continues down the Yukon. This line is without heavy grades. Sleds can be drawn over it in winter.

The distance from Juneau to the head of canoe navigation on the Taku is 91 miles. Portage to Lake Teslin 48 miles; thence to the Lewis by water 170 miles.

The Stickeen route has been greatly improved by the Canadians. That government having been granted free transit over that portion of the Stickeen River lying within United States jurisdiction in consideration of similar privileges to the citizens of the United States navigating the St. Lawrence. British-Canadian steamers make Wrangel, at the mouth of the Stickeen, their destination for this route. Thence passengers and

OUR ALASKAN

merchandise are transferred to stern-wheel river steamers, which ascend the river 150 miles to Telegraph Creek.

Thence the old trail leads 150 miles to Lake Teslin, where the Hootalinque or Teslin River, navigable for small steamers, communicates with the Upper Yukon through the same water channels as the Chilkoot and White Passes.

Owing to the swift current of the Stickeen it requires two weeks to ascend and but two days to descend, being often capstamed one way and going setern foremost the other. The voyage is both novel and exciting. The Teslin enters the Lewis Yukon through Thirty-Mile River and below the dangerous rapids.

At Calgary the Canadian Pacific has a branch to Edmonton, in Alberta Canada, from which point a portage route extends to Athabasca, landing at the head of the river and into the lake of that name via Forts McMurray, Chippeway and Smith. Thence through Slave River into Great Slave Lake at Fort Resolution; thence across that lake to Fort Providence; thence down the Mackenzie River, passing Forts Simpson, Norman and Good Hope, within the arctic circle to Fort MacPherson near the head of the Mackenzie Delta; thence by a short portage to the head of the Porcupine; thence into the Yukon, below the Klondike. This, however, is a long and circuitous route.

There is also a trail from Ashcroft on the Canadian Pacific to Telegraph Creek, B. C., the Stickeen River route to the Yukon mines.

The Governor of Alaska, a man of long experience in Alaskan life and requirements, in his official report for 1897, gives an outfit of food, utensils, tools, implements, clothing weapons, ammunition, boat, sleeping articles, rubbers, tent, etc., for two men for fourteen months at Sitka prices, the total of which is \$372.60.

All these routes pass into British territory at the ten marine league line from the coast of Southeastern Alaska.

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ed that all pros-

pectors, miners and others crossing the Canadian frontier must pay a duty of from 10 to 35 per cent. ad valorem on articles not purchased in Canada.

During 1896-7 the Canadian Government allowed free entry of miners' blankets, personal clothing in use, cooking utensils in use, and 190 pounds of food for each person, charging duty on the excess.

This has been superceded by levying duty upon everything the miner possesses except the clothes on his back. This applies to articles bought not only in the United States, but England or anywhere outside of Canada.

As miners going in are not as a rule overstocked with funds, some heroic measures on their part may be anticipated sooner or later for which the Government and people of the United States will be compelled to find a solution, if the rush continues and population increases.

It is claimed that these rigorous duties are exacted in order to make the necessary civil establishment guards and transports for gold in the region self-supporting, and which will be of great service to the miners.

The Canadians hastily established a post at Lake Lindemann on the trans-mountain foot of Chilkooot and beyond Summit Lake foot on the White Pass routes, not to mention the Chilkat, Taku and Stickeen routes over other portions of the Coast range to the head of canoe navigation toward the Yukon.

At Tagish Lake a detachment of the Canadian mounted police is stationed.

About 18 miles beyond on the Chilkooot and 32 miles by the White Passes is the 60th parallel, which marks the northern boundary between British Columbia and the northwest territory of Canada.

This may force the irrepressible conflict between British occupation and United States manifest destiny on the Pacific shores of the North American continent so emphatically upheld by Senator Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, and William H. Seward, of New York.

OUR ALASKAN

and many other statesmen great and small.

It is true similar customs obstructions are met with by persons entering United States territory from the British Canada or Columbia jurisdiction, but not to the same degree as the articles purchased in the United States and brought back would not be dutiable under the law and gold is free.

Who can tell the limits of the demands of the "American Globe Trotter." Sleepy Europe, Moribund Asia and Darkest Africa in all their centuries of human habitation were satisfied with birth, maturity, procreation and death within the pent up limits of their own petty patch of Mother Earth. The American wants the earth and he gets it because he pays for what he gets.

The American tourist routes now embrace the globe from Cancer to Capricorn, the Temperate zones, and even invade the icy solitudes of the Arctic and Antarctic Circles.

With such facts established it would not be an extravagance to say that the dawn of the Twentieth century will witness the "American Globe Trotter" on the golden wings of "American Eagles" circumventing time and distance on this terrestrial sphere by a world-round route with ferry connections over the Pacific and Atlantic Seas from the capital of the Republic of the West to the capital of the Empire of the East and thence to the capitals of Europe and home again, always facing westward.

And here we have it. "American Globe Trotter" route around the cap of the earth.

United States Railway system in operation, Washington D. C., U. S. A.

	Miles.
To Chicago, Ill.,	808
To Portland, Ore. (2,375 m.),...	3,183
U. S. Ocean service, Pacific Ferry—	
To Unalaska, U. S. (2,345 m.),...	5,528
To Vladivostok, Siberia, (2,340 m.),	7,868
Russian Siberian Railway, nearly completed—	

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Vladivostok via Grafsk; Kha-
barovka; Sretensk Mysok;
Irkutsk; Obi Tcheliabinsk.
Ural Mountain, frontier of
Russia, 7,112 versts or 4,715

miles, 14,980
European Railway system in operation—
To St. Petersburg via Moscow
(1,353 m.), 16,333
Berlin (1,042 m.), 17,375
Paris (698 m.), 18,073
London via Calais (277 m.)... 18,350
Liverpool (202 m.), 18,552
U. S. Ocean service Atlantic Ferry—
New York city (3,100 m.),.... 21,652
U. S. Railway system in operation—
Washington, D. C. (228), total,. 21,870

This route may be made available in
the year 1900 with the lines now in opera-
tion and the Trans-Siberian Railway, the
larger portion completed. The rest being
pushed with vigor.

A possible but not probable within the
near future all rail route is outlined from
Portland via Seattle, U. S., Vancouver
and Dawson, B. C., Circle City, Cape
Prince of Wales, U. S., Bering Straits,
in Lat. 65 N.; East Cape, about 3,000
miles and thence to Albazen, Russian
Siberia, 2,500 miles.

At this point this route would inter-
sect the Vladivostok-Tcheliabinsk Siber-
ian line nearly completed.

The route begins in Lat. 38 degrees, 52
minutes, at Washington, and reaches its
greatest northing at St. Petersburg, Lat.
65 N. The circumference of the earth at
the equator is 24,899 miles. In geodetic
line along the 50 latitude it would be
about 18,000 miles.

The time consumed might be forty, but
including the usual delays would proba-
bly consume sixty days.

At an early day it will be the fad of the
traveling American public.

The route can be made to take in all
Alaskan coast points.

TABLE OF DISTANCES—STATUTE MILES.

BY RAILWAY.		St. M. to Forty Mile, N.	
New York to San Fran-		W. T.,	1265
cisco,	3158	St. M. to Dawson (Klon-	
S. F. to Portland,	772	dike), N. W. T.,	1313
P. to Seattle,	124	St. M. to Stewart River,	
N. Y. to Seattle,	3290	N. W. T.,	1374
BY STEAMER.		St. M. to Mo. Pelly, Ft.	
Seattle to St. Marys I.,		Selkirk,	1425
Alaska,	655	PASS ROUTES, CHILKOOT.	
St. M. to Wrangle,	153	Juneau to Dyea,	118
W. to Juneau,	152	D. to Hd. Canoe Nav., . .	6
J. to Dyea,	100	D. to Summit Pass, . . .	114
BY STEAMER.		D. to Hd. L. Lindeman, .	123
Seattle to Sitka,	860	D. to Foot L. Lindeman, .	127
Sitka to Juneau,	160	D. to Hd. L. Bennett, . .	128
S. to Dyea,	193	D. to Ft. L. Bennett, . .	153
S. to Yakutat,	220	D. to Caribou Crossing, .	156
S. to Nutschk, Pr. Wm's S.	450	D. to Ft. Lake Tagish, .	173
S. to Kadiak,	550	D. to Hd. Lake Marsh, . .	178
S. to Sun Rise, Cook In., .	785	D. to Ft. Lake Marsh, . .	197
S. to Unga,	874	D. to Hd. of Canyon, . .	223
S. to Unalaska,	1278	D. to Ft. of Canyon, . .	224
S. to Attu, extreme West		D. to Hd. White Horse	
Aleutian Islands,	1820	Rapids,	225
BY STEAMER.		D. to Tahkeena R., . . .	240
San Francisco to Una-		D. to Lake Le Barge, . .	266
laska,	2345	BY THE WHITE PASS.	
Seattle to Unalaska, . . .	1955	Juneau to Skaguay R., .	114
Un. to Seal Island, Prib.,	240	S. to White Pass,	18
Un. to St. Michael,	750	W. P. to Hd. L. Le Barge,	129
Un. to Cape Prince Wales,	816	HERE PASS ROUTES UNITE.	
Bering Straits,	816	Dyea to Hd. L. Le Barge,	284
Un. to Point Barrow, . . .	1346	D. to Hotalingua R., . .	316
BY RIVER STEAMER.		D. to Cassiar Bar,	342
St. Michael to Mo. Yukon,	90	D. to Big Salmon R., . .	349
St. M. to Holy Cross, . . .	310	D. to Little Salmon R., .	385
St. M. to Nulato,	505	D. to Five Finger Rapids,	444
St. M. to Mo. Koyukuk, . .	525	D. to Rink Rapids,	450
St. M. to Mo. Tanana, . . .	708	D. to Pelly R., Ft. Selkirk,	503
St. M. to Rampart (Mi-		D. to White R.,	559
nook),	775	D. to Stewart R.,	609
St. M. to Shaman's Vill.,	855	D. to Dawson (Klondike),	678
St. M. to Mo. Porcupine,	995	D. to Forty Mile,	728
St. M. to Circle,	1075	D. to Cudahy,	728
St. M. to Cudahy, N. W. T.,	1264	D. to Circle, Alaska, . . .	898

STATUTE MILES.

Forty Mile, N.	
Dawson (Klon-	1265
N. W. T.,	1313
Stewart River,	
T.,	1374
Mo. Pelly, Ft.	
,	1425
UTES, CHILKOOT.	
o Dyea,	118
Canoe Nav., . .	6
mmit Pass, . . .	114
L. Lindeman, .	123
ot L. Lindeman.	127
L. Bennett, . .	128
L. Bennett, . . .	153
ibou Crossing, .	156
Lake Tagish, .	173
Lake Marsh) .	178
Lake Marsh, . .	197
of Canyon, . .	223
of Canyon, . . .	224
d. White Horse	
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Hd. L. Le Barge,	129
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nk Rapids, . . .	450
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